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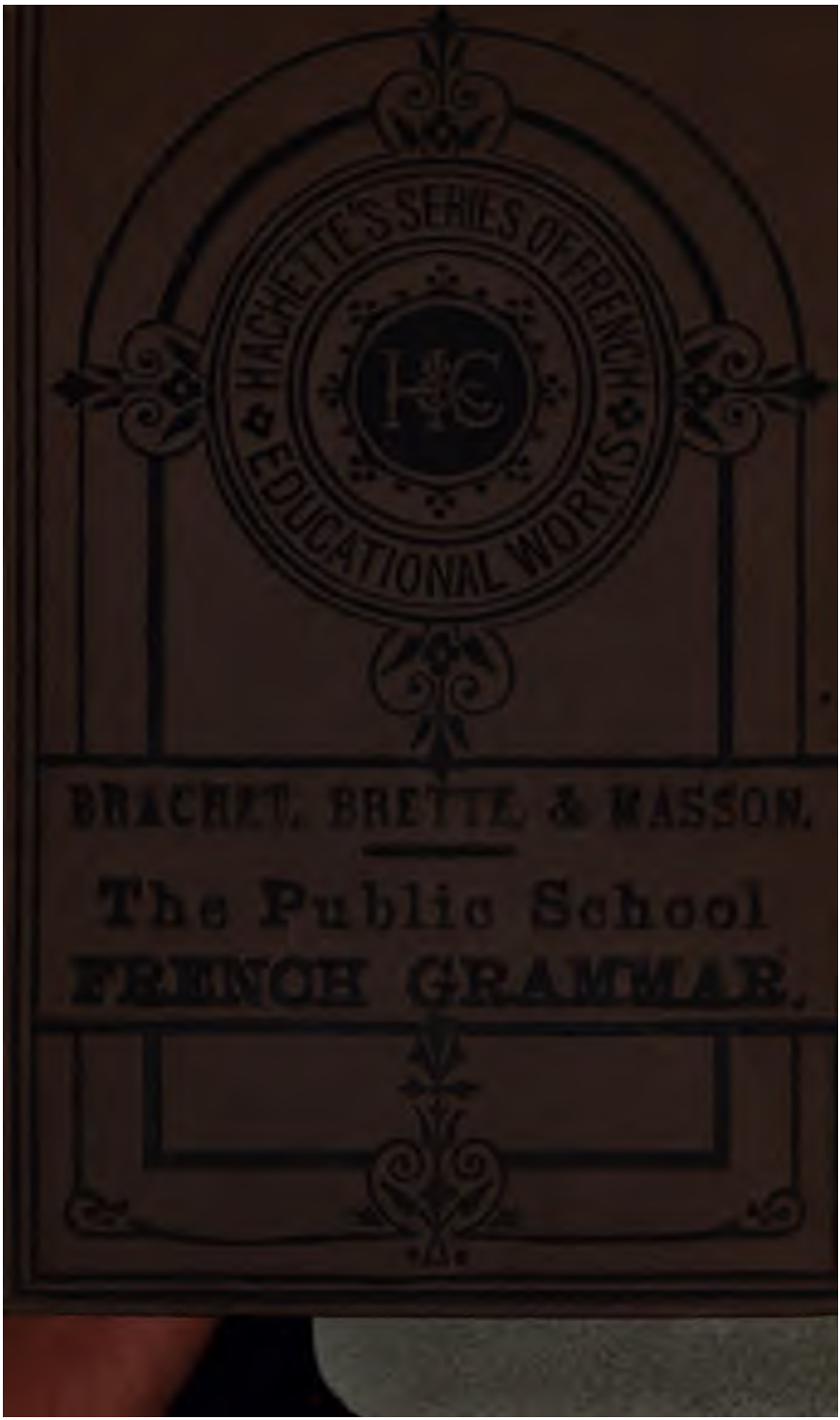
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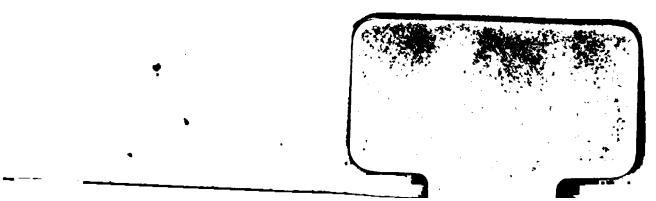

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

FRENCH GRAMMAR.

THE

PUBLIC SCHOOL

FRENCH GRAMMAR

GIVING THE LATEST RESULTS OF MODERN PHILOLOGY

BY

AUGUSTE BRACHET

ANCIEN EXAMINATEUR ET PROFESSEUR À L'ÉCOLE POLYTECHNIQUE,
LAURÉAT DE L'ACADÉMIE FRANÇAISE ET DE L'ACADÉMIE DES INSCRIPTIONS,
MEMBRE DE LA SOCIÉTÉ DE LINGUISTIQUE,

ADAPTED FOR THE USE OF ENGLISH SCHOOLS

BY

THE REV. P. H. E. BRETTE, B.D.,

HEAD MASTER OF THE FRENCH SCHOOL, CHRIST'S HOSPITAL, LONDON,

AND

GUSTAVE MASSON, B.A.,

ASSISTANT MASTER AND LIBRARIAN, HARROW SCHOOL,

EXAMINERS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

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TO

THE REV. F. W. FARRAR, D.D., F.R.S.

HEAD MASTER OF MARLBOROUGH COLLEGE, AND CHAPLAIN IN ORDINARY TO THE QUEEN.

The present Work is respectfully dedicated by the Translators

P. H. ERNEST BRETTE.
GUSTAVE MASSON.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

IN publishing this new Grammar, designed for the practical teaching of French in the elementary forms of our *lycées*, I need not justify the second title which accompanies it; no apology is necessary, now, to show the indispensable part played by history in the everyday teaching of languages.

Whatever be the idiom considered, the present use depends upon the ancient one, and finds its explanation in it alone; hence what more natural than to make the history of the language serve for the explanation of grammatical rules, by gradually taking the student back from the present use to the epoch when these rules originated? Besides the advantage of being rational, the historical method possesses another merit: memory always retains more clearly the facts which the intellect understands; and the child will remember grammatical rules so much the better, because they have been grasped by his mind. Let us take an instance. We are told that the French plural is always formed with the help of the consonant *s;* why *s* rather than *b* or *m*? Because the French substantives are derived from the Latin accusative; and whereas in Latin the characteristic letter of that case was always *s* in the plural (*rosas*, les roses; *nidos*, les nids; *dolores*, les douleurs), the absence of the *s* was a mark of the singular (*rosam*, la rose; *nidum*, le nid; *dolorem*, la douleur).

If historical grammar accounts easily for the rules, it throws with equal readiness light upon the exceptions. Why, for example, is the plural of nouns ending in *al* formed by changing that desinence into *aux*? Because at the origin of the language, nouns in *al* formed regularly their plural in *als*; in the days of Hugh Capet, un *cheval*, un *mal*, became in the plural des *chevals*, des **mals**. Later on, during the reign of Saint Louis, the *l* was softened down into *u* before a consonant; and as **val** *Girard* (le vallon de Girard) has become **Vaugirard**; as the old forms **albe**, **altre**, **palme**, (from the Latin **alba**, **alter**, **palma**) have been altered into **aube**, **autre**, **paume**, so the endings in *als* produced *aus*; hence, des **chevaus**, des **maus**, which, later on, assumed the shape of des *chevaux*, des **maux**, just as *feu*, *bijou*, and *caillou*, passed through the form *feus*, *bijous*, and *caillous*, before they were spelt *feux*, *bijoux*, and *cailloux*.

Grammarians tell us that certain words, such as *aide*, *élève*, *enseigne*, *manœuvre*, etc., are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine, and they merely state the fact, as if it could not be justified by argument. Instead of giving a dry alphabetical list of exceptions, would it not be more rational to relieve the memory of children by remarking that the abstract substantives *aide*, *élève*, *garde*, *manœuvre*, etc., are ALWAYS FEMININE when they designate the **action** of helping (*l'aide* puissante de Dieu), of bringing up (*l'élève* productive des bestiaux), of keeping (*la garde* des frontières), of steering or manœuvring (*la manœuvre* du navire), and that they become ALWAYS MASCULINE when they express the **individual** who performs these various actions (*un aide* de camp, *un élève*, *un garde* national, *un manœuvre*)?

How has our future been formed? Why does it take the ending *ai* in the four different conjugations? Because, at the downfall of the Roman empire, the Latin terminations having all lost their distinctness, illiterate and common people were apt to confound desinences so similar to each other as *legit* (il lit), *leget* (il lira), *legat* (qu'il lise), *lege* (lis). These words, of which the pronunciation differed only by delicate shades, were

beyond the appreciation of the Barbarian ear. Hence, in order to express the future, a ruder and more perceptible form was sought, and the verb *habere* (avoir) was used together with the infinitive of the conjugated verb. Certain Latin texts of the period of decay give us *scribere habeo* (literally *j'**ai** à écrire*) in the sense of *j'écri**rai***; and, in like manner, *amare habeo* (*j'**ai** à aimer*) for *j'aime**rai***; that is why the French future is formed by adding everywhere the indicative present of the verb *avoir* (*ai, as, a,* etc.) to the infinitive of the other verbs (*je chante**rai**, je fini**rai**, je rendr**ai***).

Why do certain tenses take a *t* in the third person singular when the verb is conjugated interrogatively (*il aime, aime-**t**-il; il aima, aima-**t**-il*)? Grammarians answer unhesitatingly that the *t* is a euphonic letter meant to soften the collision of the vowels which would be too hard in *aime-il, aime-on*. But the child might immediately answer, if the *t* is inserted for euphony's sake, why is it allowable to say *il pourra-élire, il pourra-ondoyer*, when *pourra-elle, pourra-on* are inadmissible? Why is the hiatus of the vowels **a-e, a-o**, tolerated in the former case, and forbidden in the latter?

Historical grammar helps us to the true solution of this little problem. In Latin, *t* is the characteristic letter of the third person singular: *am**at**, fin**it**, rump**it*** originally became in French *il aime**t**, il fini**t**, il romp**t***. The final *t* in *il aime**t*** was naturally mute, as is now the same letter in *ils aiment*; *il aime**t*** was pronounced *il aime*, just as we pronounce *il fini, il romp*, though we write *il finit, il rompt*. The mute *t* soon disappeared from the first conjugation (in its direct form) about the time of Philip Augustus; but it persisted in the interrogative form because there it was sonorous and perceptible: *aime-**t**-il?* Later on the origin and *raison d'être* of that letter were forgotten: the *t* was separated by a hyphen from the root of which it constituted a part, and the old *aime**t**-il* became towards the sixteenth century, *aime-t-il*, which, in the midst of modern forms, is only a last vestige of the mediæval conjugation.

I have not merely given, *so far as possible*,* the explanation of the rules and exceptions of the ordinary grammar; it has been likewise my aim to simplify the syntax, and to free it of the scholastic puerilities which for the last two centuries the grammarians belonging to the so-called Philosophic coterie have vied with one another in heaping upon it; the unintelligible distinctions with which these gentlemen seem to delight in crowding the memory of children are also set aside.

But whilst suppressing all this metaphysical lumber, I have, with the view of rendering the grammar more really practical, given the rules for the formation of the various parts of speech. What is there apparently more barren and more uninteresting than the nomenclature of the conjugations? When you have taught the child how the skeleton of the various flexions is constructed, and according to what rules the verbs we possess form their tenses and their persons, it still remains for him to learn how new verbs are made, and to what sources we must apply for the purpose of increasing our stock. In order to show him what are the riches of the French language, tell him, for instance, that new verbs are produced with the help of nouns and adjectives, but that we can distinguish them easily from one another, if we bear in mind that verbs ending in *er* are formed exclusively from nouns (*table*, attabler; *front*, affronter; *tas*, tasser; *jardin*, jardiner), whereas the verbs ending in *ir* have all adjectives as their origin (*grand*, grandir; *maigre*, mai-

* There are many exceptions which cannot be justified without stepping beyond the limits of elementary teaching. Thus, it is easy to mark out in its broad lines the theory of the formation of our irregular verbs; nothing is more simple than to explain why *finir* makes *je finis* in the present, whilst *dormir* makes *je dors*. But it is impossible to give the reason for each separate irregularity, unless we begin by describing to the pupil, in their smallest shades, the laws which affect the change of the Latin letters into the French ones. For, without these preliminary explanations, how can we account for the change of the vowel *a* in the root of the verb *savoir* to *ai* in the present (*sais*), *u* in the perfect (*sus*), *a* in the subjunctive (*sache*)?

grir; *brun*, brunir; *lourd*, alourdir; etc.). Tell him that, since the beginning of the language, *not a single verb* in *oir* or in *re* has been added to the small number of those which the Latin had bequeathed to the French; so that these two conjugations, incapable of producing new verbs, are rightly called *dead conjugations*, by opposition to the two ending respectively in *er* and *ir*, and which may be designated as *living*, since they have alone supplied French with all the verbs formed during the last eight centuries. This simple distinction of the conjugations as *dead* aud *living* will explain at the same time to the child why, out of the 4000 verbs which belong to our language, the two conjugations in *oir* and *re* do not number together more than 80, whilst the conjugation in *ir* has as many as 300, and that in *er* upwards of 3000. Nothing, too, is more useful than the study of prefixes and suffixes to teach children the precise signification of words and the shades of meaning which distinguish them from one another; thus, how from a simple word such as *chanson* we have a whole family of derivatives, such as *chanson*nier, *chanson*nette, *chanson*ner, and what modifications each of these desinences brings to the primitive meaning of the root. This study cannot but result, both for the master and the pupil, in a useful and attractive investigation, which, under the name of *etymological analysis*, will take its place throughout the forms of our public schools next to parsing and the analysis of sentences.

We have thus explained the many advantages of the historical method and of its application to the elementary study of French; let us add that it presents greater dangers than the purely mechanical system, when handled by incompetent teachers, precisely because it is of a more delicate character. The most serious quicksands which the new method contains are, to name only a few: 1st, the belief that historical explanation can replace, for children, the study of rules. 2nd, the mistake of giving them prematurely a dose of science beyond their capacity. 3rd, the possibility of imparting erroneous philological ideas.

Only those persons who know imperfectly the minds of

children can fancy that the historical explanation of the rules will prove useful to pupils at first starting, and that the necessary effort of memory will one day make way for the mere understanding of facts. It would be the most injurious of all mistakes to suppose that beginners will remember better the singularities of the verb *envoyer*, if they are told why the future is *enverrai*, whilst *nettoyer* in the same tense makes *nettoierai*. Do not ask the child why the plural is formed in *s* and not in *b* or in *m*; why *e* is the characteristic ending of the feminine, and not *a* or *u*; why *chanteur* makes *chanteuse* in the feminine, whilst *enchanteur* makes *enchanteresse*, and *spectateur*, *spectatrice*; all these forms are, for him, facts which he accepts without discussion, and which produce no astonishment in his mind. If you draw his attention too soon upon these differences, he hesitates, and his memory gets confused, whilst his understanding derives no benefit. Let the pupil possess by a mere mnemonic effort a practical knowledge of grammatical facts; then, and only then, it will be time to rouse his curiosity by degrees, and to explain to him why the adverbs of quality end in *-ment*, why a neuter verb cannot govern a substantive in the objective case, why the *e* mute in *acheter* becomes an open *e* in *j'achète*, and assumes again the mute form in *nous achetons*. When the feeling of curiosity has once been awakened in these young minds, the teacher will satisfy it appropriately by commenting on the explanations in small print which we have added to the various rules.

If, in order that the child may understand the value of historical grammar, it is necessary that the claims of memory should be respected, and that the explanation of the rules should find its place only when the course of instruction is gone over for the second time, there is another precaution which it is quite as necessary to observe; namely, that the explanations should be graduated according to the child's intellectual capacity, and to his knowledge of Latin. The teacher will find it his most difficult task to systematise from one form to another his

historical *éclaircissements*, availing himself, year by year, of the pupil's more familiar acquaintance with the Latin language, and thus reaching the appointed goal by the means of annual recapitulations and successive developments.

Curiosity in children is a means of emulation so scarce, and a motive so valuable, that the tutor must neither keep it too much on the stretch, nor weary it by placing upon it too great a burden. According to M. Burnouf's expression, we should not spread out before beginners the minutiæ of science, nor sacrifice the principal to the subsidiary by speaking of Sanscrit roots or of the Celtic conjugation, *à propos* of the agreement of the past participle. Philology, here, is not the end, but the means; let us bear this in mind, let us especially remember that if it is both difficult and important to proportion the sum of erudition to the understanding of the child, it is still more important to furnish pupils only with the well-ascertained results of science, and to exclude strictly notions which are open to suspicion, or even merely of a doubtful nature.

With the exception of a few remarks of a local character, and which would be uninteresting here, we have given M. Brachet's Preface in its entirety. Only one word more need be added.

It is obvious that a Grammar intended, in the first instance, for French pupils could not, without certain modifications, be advantageously used in English class-rooms; but these modifications in no wise affect the character of the original work. They bear chiefly on the following points:—

1. The syntax, of course, had to be entirely re-written; it will form a distinct book, accompanied by a separate set of exercises. At the same time we have preserved M. Brachet's own syntax as part of the present volume, adding, however, some developments whenever necessary.

2. Whilst the old division of the verbs into four conjugations so familiar to English pupils, has been retained for convenier

sake, we also give the Author's proposed arrangement, which has certainly the advantage of being more justifiable on scientific grounds.

3. The chapters relating to the nouns, adjectives, and pronouns will be found considerably expanded, and illustrated by a copious set of examples.

4. Besides the alphabetical table compiled by M. Brachet, we have added a biographical and historical index, which the young student will, we trust, find useful.

It is our earnest hope, finally, that the present adapted translation of the "Nouvelle Grammaire Française" will be received in English schools with the favour which the original volume has obtained amongst our neighbours on the other side of the Channel.

P. H. ERNEST BRETTE.
GUSTAVE MASSON.

INTRODUCTION.

INTRODUCTION.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS ON THE HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE.

SUMMARY.

(§ 1—3.)—GEOGRAPHY OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE.—1. Provinces of France where French is not spoken.—2. Foreign Countries where French is spoken.—3. Division of France into two Regions: French *patois*; Provençal *patois*.

(§ 4—11.)—HISTORY OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE.—4. Introduction of Latin into Gaul.—5. Difference between Popular and Classical Latin.—6. Origin of the Romance Language.—7. Origin of French, Italian, Spanish: *Langue d'oc*; *Langue d'oil*, and its Dialects.—8. The French Dialect takes the place both of the *Langue d'oc*, and the *Langue d'oil*.—9. A Concise View of the History of Popular French.—10. Origin of *Foreign* and of *Learned* Words.—11. Statistics of the French Language.

1. GEOGRAPHY.—The French language extends over the whole of France, with the exception of one single province, Brittany; where, out of a population of 1,800,000, one million of individuals speak a language known by the name of *Bas-Breton*, and which is Celtic in its origin. To this important exception three small groups can be further added: the department of the North, where 200,000 inhabitants out of 1,200,000 speak the *Flemish* language, an offshoot from the German; the department of Lower Pyrenees, where 120,000 persons speak the *Basque*, a very ancient idiom, the origin of which is unknown; finally, the department of Eastern Pyrenees (formerly the province of Roussillon), where 130,000 inhabitants speak the Catalonian language, derived from the Latin.

2. If the domains of the French language do not correspond with the whole present territory of France, on the other hand they include, abroad, several important districts, represent

an aggregate of a little more than 3,600,000 inhabitants, distributed as follows:—Belgium, 1,600,000; Germany, 1,000,000; French Switzerland, 400,000; finally, the Channel Islands, 60,000.

To these numbers we must add, out of Europe, the English colonies of Canada and Mauritius, which have retained the use of the French, to say nothing of the French settlements (Algeria, Guiana, Senegal, etc.); we find thus 1,500,000 inhabitants more to be placed to the account of the French linguistic wealth.

3. With reference to the language, France is divided into two regions, North and South, the limits of which can be marked by tracing on the map a line extending from La Rochelle to Grenoble.

North of this line all cultivated people speak French; the peasants understand French, but make use of *patois* closely connected with it. These *patois* are four in number: 1. The *Norman*, spoken in the western district; 2. The *Picard*, in the north-western; 3. The *Lorrain*, in the east; 4. The *Burgundian*, in the central and south-eastern. The analogy which these *patois* present with the French language has caused them to be collectively designated as *French patois*.

South of the line, linguistic circumstances are entirely different. Cultivated people, indeed, understand and write French; but in the relations they hold with each other they have recourse by preference (even in the large towns) to their own *patois*, which is an idiom as different from the French as is Italian or Spanish. The inhabitants of the rural districts, notwithstanding the efforts made by the teachers of elementary schools, seldom speak anything else besides these *patois*, which are likewise four in number: —1. The *Gascon*; 2. The *Limousin*; 3. The *Languedocian*; and 4. The *Provençal*; the names sufficiently point out the provinces where these idioms are respectively used; they are called collectively *Provençal patois*, by opposition to the *French patois* spoken north of the Loire.

4. HISTORY.—Everyone knows that the earliest inhabitants of Gaul, so far as we are aware, at least, were the *Galli*, who spoke a language belonging to the *Celtic* family, that is to say, akin to the idioms used in France by the natives of Lower Brittany, and, in the British Isles, by the Scotch Highlanders, the Irish, and the Welsh.

In the course of the first century, B.C., the legions led by Cæsar conquered Gaul and reduced it to the position of a Roman province. Far superior to the *Galli*, in point both of science and of civilisation, the Romans forced upon them the Latin language together with the yoke, in the same way as the French have forced their language upon the Arabs of Algeria. It is a law of history that the conquered always forsake their own language to adopt that of the conquerors, when these are superior in civilisation; accordingly, as the Celts gave up the language of Gaul to adopt the Latin, so, at a later period, the German barbarians, the conquerors of Gaul in the fifth century, abandoned the German language for that of the Gallo-Romans whom they had subdued.

5. This Latin language, however, which the Roman soldiers and colonists brought into Gaul, no more resembled the classical Latin of Cicero and Virgil than the French taught to the Arabs by the Algerian colonists and soldiers resembles the idiom of Racine and Bossuet. At Rome, just as in the France of the nineteenth century, there were two languages co-existing: that of the people and of the peasants, the *popular Latin*, in a word; and that of the learned and the *literati*, which is known as *classical* or *literary Latin*—the former was less fettered, the latter was more refined; but both employed often different words to express the same idea. Thus, whilst the classical *Latin* had the substantive *equus* as an equivalent for *horse*, the colloquial Latin said *caballus*; whence the French *cheval*.

6. It is the *colloquial Latin*, naturally, which the Roman soldiers introduced amongst the peasants of Gaul; these, in their turn, transformed it into French, by dint of altering the pronunciation. If we notice how the English who speak the French language all modify in the same manner the pronunciation of the French, we shall easily understand how Latin uttered by the *Galli* was altered according to one uniform system; it is precisely this altered Latin which is called *French*. The colloquial Latin thus changed through the Celtic pronunciation, began to make its appearance about the fifth century, at the downfall of the Roman empire, as a distinct language, which the *savants* of the day contemptuously called *lingua Romana rustica* (the Latin of the peasants); hence the designation *Romance language*. The invasion of the barbarians was then destroying the empire; in the

storm, everything bearing the Roman stamp disappeared—administration, schools, justice, aristocracy, literature; the *literary* Latin shared the same fate—that idiom which had been both the organ and the result of intellectual activity. The *literary* or *classical* Latin, incomprehensible to the people, speedily became the dead language which we now see exclusively reserved for the use of the learned.

The Latin of the rustics (*lingua Romana rustica*, the Romance language) remained mistress of Gaul, and became the *French*, the earliest important monument of which is supplied by the well-known formula of oaths taken at Strasburg in 842 by Ludwig *the German* and Karl *the Bald*. During the tenth century, the song of Saint Eulalia (*cantilène de Sainte Eulalie*), a short poem of thirty lines, exhibits the first use of French as a medium for poetry. With the next century the *chanson de Roland*, together with other important compositions, testify that the French language has risen to the position of a literary idiom.

7. As colloquial Latin produced *French* in Gaul, so it became *Italian* in Italy, and *Spanish* in Spain. In France the *Romance language* was subdivided into two great varieties corresponding with the rival races of the north and south. North of the Loire, we find the *Langue d'oïl*, or French, properly so called; south of the Loire, we have the *Langue d'oc*, or Provençal; these curious names result from the custom, frequently resorted to during the middle ages, of designating languages by the sign of affirmation *oui* (yes); *oui* was *oïl* in the north, and *oc* in the south.

The northern language, the *Langue d'oïl*, was in its turn divided, during the eleventh century, into four principal dialects: the *Norman*, the *Picard*, the *Burgundian*, and, finally, the *French* dialect, which was originally the one spoken in the province called Ile-de-*France*. (In the middle ages the name *Français* was given specially to the inhabitants of Ile-de-France.) These four dialects were equal in power and in influence, because there did not exist then, as there does to-day, one single centre, one capital of the kingdom, capable of setting to the whole country the model of elegant speaking. The Dukes, whether of Normandy or of Burgundy, equals of the Dukes of France (we mean, of Ile-de-France), employed respectively in their official acts the language of their province, Norman or Burgundian

How is it that these four languages were subsequently reduced to one? Why is it that the dialect of Ile-de-France was adopted subsequently as the common language, rather than the Burgundian or the Norman? As long as the Capetian monarchs, humble lords of Ile-de-France and of Orléanais, remained destitute of all influence beyond the limits of their royal domain (that is to say, from the tenth to the twelfth century), the French dialect enjoyed no notoriety out of these two provinces. But with the beginning of the twelfth century, the petty Kings of France began to extend their possessions at their neighbours' expense; they annexed successively Berry (1101), Picardy (1200), Touraine (1203), Normandy (1204), Champagne (1361), and carried with them into these newly-acquired provinces the dialect of Ile-de-France, the *French*, which took, in each of them, the place of the native dialect; and being the *language of the King*, was soon adopted as the type of fashionable parlance. Resisting this invasion, the people alone, in each province, retained their old dialect, and refused to accept the French. As they ceased then to be used in writing, the idioms of Picardy, Burgundy, and Normandy fell immediately from the rank of *dialects* (that is to say, of *literary* languages both written and spoken) to the humble position of *patois* (we mean of idioms not written, but only spoken). This date (the fourteenth century), when the provincial dialects became patois, whilst the dialect of Ile-de-France assumed the place of the common language of the kingdom, marked the death of *langue d'oïl* and the historical birth of the *French language*.

The *patois* which we find at the present day in the rural districts of Picardy, Normandy, and Burgundy are not, therefore, as is commonly believed, the *literary French corrupted on the lips of the peasants;* they are the *débris* of the old provincial dialects reduced by political events from the rank of written languages to that of *patois*.

8. The *Langue d'oïl* had disappeared to make room for the French; south of the Loire, the *Langue d'oc* likewise vanished away. The terrible rivalry between the inhabitants of the south and those of the north, rivalry which ended by the Crusade against the Albigenses and the defeat of the Southerners, struck the death-blow at the *Langue d'oc*. In 1272, Languedoc was annexed to France, and the introduction of the French language closely

followed as a matter of consequence. The *Langue d'oc* ceased to be used as a medium for writing; it fell from the rank of literary language to that of patois, and the Limousin, Gascon, Languedocian, and Provençal patois which still persist at the present day in the rural districts of southern France, are merely the *débris* of that *Langue d'oc* which shone with so brilliant a lustre in the times of the troubadours.

9. To sum up: we see that the French is in nowise formed from the corrupted *débris* of the Celtic language, as some grammarians still persist in saying; and its history may be concisely stated thus: the *popular* Latin transferred into Gaul by the soldiers of Cæsar quickly suppressed the native language, the *Celtic*, and, through a series of slow and imperceptible transformations, gave birth to a new idiom, the *Romance language*, to which the barbarians added a certain number of German words (such as *fief*, fief, *sénéchal*, seneschal, *baron*, baron, *échevin*, alderman, sheriff, etc.) relating to the feudal system, to war, and hunting. Towards the eighth century, this *Romance language* was divided into two branches: the *Langue d'oc*, south of the Loire, and the *Langue d'oïl*, north of that river. One of the four dialects of *Langue d'oïl*, that of Isle-de-France, supplanted gradually all the others, and became, in the fourteenth century, the *French language*.

10. To the old stock of the language, which may be called *popular French*, two categories of new words have become superadded, from the fourteenth century to the nineteenth.

1st. *Foreign words*, imported as the result of several political circumstances, the principal of which are, in the thirteenth century, the Crusades and the commercial relations with the East; in the sixteenth, the Italian wars, and the influence of the Renaissance; in the seventeenth, the influence exercised by Spain over the court of Louis XIII., and the wars of Germany with France; finally, in the present century, the commercial, industrial, and social relations which the French are carrying on with England, and which are daily increasing.

To the first of these causes is due the introduction of a small quantity of Arabic or oriental words (*sultan*, sultan, *caravane*, caravan, *derviche*, dervis, *alcool*, alcohol, *sequin*, sequin, etc.); to the second, the French language is indebted for more than five hundred words of Italian origin (especially terms of war

and of the fine arts—*spadassin*, fighter *or* hired assassin, *brave*, brave, *gabion*, gabion, *parapet*, parapet;—*costume*, dress, *fresque*, fresco, *aquarelle*, water-colour, *galbe*, entasis, *torse*, torso, etc.); the third has contributed a few Spanish words (*mantille*, mantilla, *duègne*, duenna, *matamore*, bully, *hâbler*, to boast, etc.), and a certain number of special German military expressions (*vaguemestre*, baggage-master, *schlague*, military flogging, *bivouac*, bivouac, *blockhaus*, block-house, etc.); finally, the invasion of English words is still very steadily going on (*whist*, *turf*, *spleen*, *tunnel*, *wagon*, *rail*, *coke*, *express*, *fashionable*, *budget*, *jury*, etc.).*

2nd. In addition to the *popular French*, which is the work of the people, and to the *foreign words* imported into France as the result of political circumstances, we must distinguish a third series of expressions created by learned men since the eleventh century, and ever on the increase. This learned French consists of words borrowed directly by the *savants*, either from the Greek (*autopsie*, *aristocratie*, *microscope*, *cosmographie*), or from the Latin (as *relation*, *proportion*, *préméditation*, *précession*, *coordination*, etc.). This importation of Greek or Latin words, posterior to the birth of the language, was excessive, especially, in the sixteenth century, when the Renaissance scholars thus manufactured several thousands of new expressions, badly formed, and which Malherbe and the great writers of the seventeenth century were to a considerable extent obliged to proscribe and reject.

11. As a conclusion to these short historical remarks, let us show by a few numbers in what proportions the three elements: *popular* French, words of *foreign origin*, and *learned* or *artificial* words, have combined to form the French language. We shall take as the basis of our calculation the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie française*, which contains about 27,000 words: out of these we find 600 whose origin is entirely unknown; 1000 are words of foreign extraction, borrowed from the modern languages (English, Italian, Spanish, etc.); whilst 14,000 are of *learned origin*, having been made up by scholars with the help of Greek and Latin. We thus obtain a total of

* For the etymology of all these words, see Brachet's "*Dictionnaire étymologique.*"

15,600 words, leaving us rather less than 12,000 constituting what we may designate as *popular French*. Of these 12,000 words, about 8000, such as *pauv-ette*, *faibl-ir*, *maigr-ir*, are immediately created by the French with the help of the simple words *pauvre*, *faible*, *maigre*, etc. The simple words, which constitute the real substratum of the language, are therefore reducible to about 4200, of which 3800 are of Latin origin, whilst the remaining 400 are German words introduced by the Teutonic conquerors at the time of the invasion (fifth century).

OBJECT AND DEFINITION OF GRAMMAR.

12. We express ourselves by means of *phrases*, which are composed of *words*; words, in their turn, are composed of *letters*.

13. The French grammar is the series of rules observed in the French language for the assemblage of *letters* into *words*, and the combination of *words* into *sentences*. Hence three divisions in the grammar: the study of *letters*, the study of *words*, and the study of *sentences*.

BOOK I.

STUDY OF LETTERS.

BOOK I.

STUDY OF LETTERS.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE FRENCH ALPHABET.

14. We express our thoughts by means of *words*, which are composed of one or several *sounds*, represented in writing by signs called *letters*.

The art of spelling correctly all the words in a language is called orthography, from the Greek ὀρθογραφία (spelling correctly). To make French orthography perfect we should have each word, *when written*, composed of as many *letters* as there are *sounds* in the word when pronounced; that is to say we should have each *sound* represented by a single *letter*, which should be restricted exclusively to that sound, as in the word *vola*, which has four sounds (*v-o-l-a*) expressed by four letters; but too often in French several letters are used to represent a single sound; for instance, *eau* (water), which has only one sound (*o*), is composed of three letters; *taureau* (bull) is written in seven letters, and yet has but four sounds (*t-o-r-o*); this shows that modern French spelling is imperfect, because many letters are written without being pronounced; sometimes, on the other hand, the same letter serves to represent two sounds, that is to say it is pronounced in two different ways: thus *s* has the sound of *s* in *désert* (to desert), whilst in *savoir* (to know), its sound is completely different.

Several attempts have been made to restore French orthography, and suit the spelling exactly to the pronunciation; but these efforts have always failed before the power of custom.

15. The collection of all the letters used in a language is called *Alphabet*. The French alphabet is composed of twenty-five letters, as follows:—

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, X, Y, Z.

These twenty-five letters do not express all the sounds of the French language; there are some other simple sounds which are expressed by joining together two letters of the alphabet, thus forming a new group. *Ch*, for instance, is a simple sound represented by two letters.

Why does the French alphabet follow this curious order in which consonants and vowels are jumbled together indiscriminately? Because it is derived from the Latin, whose alphabet was already arranged in this order. The Latins borrowed their alphabet from the Greeks (doubtless through the medium of the Greek colonies in the south of Italy); the Greeks took theirs from the Phœnicians, and as for the Phœnician alphabet, it probably came from Egypt. This Phœnician alphabet contained only the consonants, and it was the Greeks who first inserted the vowels therein, transforming for this purpose certain aspirated consonants which were contained in the Phœnician alphabet, and which the Greeks did not employ. This is the explanation of the mixture which now exists in the French alphabet of vowels and consonants.

16. All the sounds of the French language are divided into two classes, viz., **vowels** and **consonants.**

CHAPTER II.

SIMPLE VOWELS.

17. The sound produced by a simple emission of the voice (*a*, *o*, *u*), is called a *vowel*. There are seven vowels in French—

a, e, i (or y),* o, u, eu, ou.

All the vowels can be pronounced by themselves, without the help of any other sound.

Latin had five vowels—*a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, pronounced as in French, except *e*, which was pronounced like the French open *è* in *après* (after), *cyprès* (cypress), and *u*, which was pronounced like *ou* (and which has kept this pronunciation in French in *loup* (wolf), from *lupum*, *ours* (bear), from *ursum*, etc. To the Latin vowels French has added three sounds unknown to the Romans: closed *é* in *aimé* (loved), *pré* (meadow), etc., *eu*, and, last of all, the modern sound *u*, which goes back nearly as far as the Merovingian times, and which is a softening of the sound in classical Latin written *u*, and pronounced *ou*.

We shall not give here a complete history of the transition of the Latin letters into French, which is to be found elsewhere,† but only show briefly how each Latin accented vowel passed into French, as without this explanation that which follows could not be understood:—

Just as in French the vowels are *long*, as in *gîte* (home), or *short*, as in *petite* (small); in Latin also a distinction must be drawn between *short* vowels (as *ĕ* in *pĕdem*), and *long* (as *ē* in *rēgem*), besides those vowels which are placed before two consonants (as *e* in *terra*); these three different kinds of vowels give rise to three different sounds in French; for example, short *ĕ* in Latin produces *ie*, *pied* (foot), from *pĕdem*; whilst long *ē* produces *oi*, *roi* (king), from *rēgem*, and *e* followed by two consonants remains *e* (*terre*, from *terra*).

* See § 25.

† See Brachet's "*Dictionnaire étymologique.*"

SHORT LATIN VOWELS: Latin *ă* becomes open *e*: *sel* (salt), from *sal*, *mer* (sea), from *mare*, *fève* (bean), from *făba*.—Latin *ĕ* becomes *ie*; *pied* (foot), from *pĕdem*, *lièvre* (hare), from *lĕporem*, *piége* (snare), from *pĕdica*, *fier* (proud), from *fĕrum*.—Latin *ĭ* becomes *oi*: *poil* (hair), from *pĭlum*, *poire* (pear), from *pĭrum*, *soit* (be it so), from *sĭt*, *foi* (faith), from *fĭdem*.—Latin *ŏ* becomes *eu*: *neuf* (new), from *nŏvum*, *neuf* (nine), from *nŏvem*, *meule* (millstone), from *mŏla*, *Meuse* (river Meuse), from *Mŏsa*.—Latin *ŭ* preserves its Roman pronunciation of *ou*: *loup* (wolf), from *lŭpum*, *joug* (yoke), from *jŭgum*, *couvé* (part. of the verb *couver*, to brood), from *cŭbo*, *où* (where), from *ŭbi*.

LONG LATIN VOWELS.—Latin *ā* becomes *é* closed: *aimé* (loved), from *amātum*, *pré* (meadow), from *prātum*, *abbé* (abbot), from *abbātem*, *vérité* (truth), from *veritātem*.—Latin *ē* becomes *oi*: *moi* (I, me), from *mē*, *toile* (linen cloth), from *tēla*, *voile* (veil, sail), from *vēlum*, *roi* (king), from *rēgem*.—Latin *ī* remains *i* in French: *nid* (nest), from *nīdum*, *vin* (wine), from *vīnum*, *ami* (friend), from *amīcum*, *si* (if, so), from *sīc*.—*ō* becomes *eu*: *fleur* (flower), from *flōrem*, *seul* (alone), from *sōlum*, *heure* (hour), from *hōra*, except before the letters *m*, *n*, when it remains *o*: *couronne* (crown), from *corōna*, *don* (gift), from *dōnum*.—Latin *ū* is softened in French, loses the sound *ou*, and becomes the modern *u*: *nu* (naked), from *nūdum*, *pur* (pure), from *pūrum*, *mur* (wall), from *mūrum*, *dur* (hard), from *dūrum*.

LATIN VOWELS FOLLOWED BY TWO CONSONANTS.—Latin *a* remains unchanged: *arbre* (tree), from *arbor*, *an* (year), from *annum*, *arc* (bow), from *arcum*, *chant* (song), from *cantum*.—*e* remains unchanged: *terre* (earth, land), from *terra*, *fer* (iron), from *ferrum*, *herbe* (grass), from *herba*, *tête* (head), from *testa*.—Latin *i* becomes open *è*: *sec* (dry), from *siccum*, *ferme* (firm), from *firmum*, *elle* (she), from *illa*, *verge* (rod), from *virga*.—Latin o remains unchanged: *mol* (soft), from *mollis*, *port* (port, harbour), from *portum*, *mort* (death), from *mortem*, *cor* (horn), from *cornu*.—Latin *u* keeps its pronunciation of *ou*: *d'où* (whence), from *unde*, *ours* (bear), from *ursum*, *sourd* (deaf), from *surdum*, *mouche* (fly), from *muscam*, *tour* (tower), from *turrim*.

18. All the vowels can be either **short** or **long**, according as they are pronounced **quickly** or **slowly**: thus *a* is short in *patte* (paw, foot), because it is pronounced rapidly; whilst it is long in *pâte* (dough), because we lay a stress on the *â*. In the same way—

e	is long in	bête (beast),	and short in	jette (he throws).
i	,,	gîte (lodging),	,,	petite (small).
o	,,	côte (coast),	,,	dévote (devout).
u	,,	flûte (flute),	,,	butte (butt, mound).
eu	,,	heure (hour),	,,	jeu (game).
ou	,,	voûte (vault),	,,	toute (all).

Long vowels are generally marked with the sign ^, called **circumflex accent** (*accent circonflexe*). This accent is placed over all the vowels, with the exception of *eu*, which does not take any special mark—*e.g.*: *eu* is long in heure (hour), fleur (flower), honneur (honour), without any sign distinguishing it from *eu* short in jeu (game), feu (fire), etc.

The circumflex accent was introduced into French by the grammarians of the sixteenth century, who borrowed it from the Greek. It generally serves to show where a letter has been dropped. Thus the Latin *testa, bestia, festa*, gave rise at first to the old French *teste, beste, feste;* this *s* was pronounced up to the fourteenth century, when it disappeared, at the same time lengthening the preceding vowel; and then arose the pronunciation *ê: bête* (beast), *fête* (feast), *tête* (head). Yet although no longer pronounced, this *s* remained several centuries more in writing; all the editions of the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie française* till the end of the eighteenth century continue to write *beste, feste, teste*, and Bossuet, Racine, Boileau, etc., never wrote otherwise. In the first edition of its *Dictionnaire* (1694), the Academy condemned the use of the circumflex accent, and did not yield on this point till more than a hundred years after.

19. It is rather difficult to fix precise rules to know when a syllable is short or long in French. There is, however, for the penultimate syllables a criterion to go by: they are generally short when followed by a double consonant, as pa*tte* (paw), bu*tte* (butt, mound), trompe*tte* (trumpet), be*lle* (beautiful), etc., except when that double consonant is *rr*, as in te*rre* (earth), se*rre* (hot-house), ve*rre* (glass), where the penultimate *e* is long.

20. Out of the seven vowels *a, e, i, o, u, eu, ou*, the first five are represented in French by a single letter; the last two are expressed by the junction of two letters, namely, *e* and *u, o* and

u. Although appearing to the eye compound vowels, they give to the ear only one sound, *eu*, *ou*, as simple as that of *a* or *o*.

21. No remarks are needed about *a* and *i*; but *e*, *o*, and *eu* require some observations to be made.

22. The letter *e* is used in French to express **three sounds**, which in reality ought to be considered as three distinct vowels. For **E** has the three following sounds :—

1. One very open, which is heard in t*e*rre (earth, land). m*e*r (sea), enf*e*r (hell), succ*è*s (success), proc*è*s (lawsuit), and uttered by opening the mouth wide. This **e** is called **ouvert** (open), and is generally marked with the little sign `, called **grave accent** (*accent grave*), as fr*è*re (brother), p*è*re (father), succ*è*s (success), proc*è*s (lawsuit); except when the *e* is followed by two consonants, as in p*e*ste (plague), r*e*ste (remainder), fr*e*sque (fresco), or when it is followed by a sounded *r* at the end of a word, as in :—

am*e*r (bitter)	f*e*r (iron)
canc*e*r (cancer)	hi*e*r (yesterday)
ch*e*r (dear)	hiv*e*r (winter)
enf*e*r (hell)	v*e*r (worm).

This sound of the open *e* is also rendered either by *ai*, as in :—

*ai*re (threshing floor),	pronounced	ère.
ch*ai*r (flesh),	,,	chère.
cl*ai*r (clear),	,,	clère.
éc*lai*r (lightning),	,,	éclère.
p*ai*r (equal),	,,	père.

Or by *ei*, as in :—

p*ei*ne (trouble),	pronounced	pène.
S*ei*ne (Seine),	,,	scène.
v*ei*ne (vein),	,,	vène.

Therefore, there are *four* ways of expressing by writing the same sound of open **e**, viz., *e*, *è*, *ai*, *ei*.

2. An *acute* sound, called **e fermé** (close), which is heard in aim*é* (loved), bont*é* (goodness), sant*é* (health), and in all the words where the final *r* is not sounded, as in verge*r* (orchard), roche*r* (rock), parle*r* (to speak), aime*r* (to love). This sound of *e close* is produced by closely shutting the mouth, and is generally denoted by the sign ´, called **acute accent** (*accent aigu*). **Observe** that *e close* is always short; it cannot be long like the *e open*, which is short in fer (iron), and long in temp*ê*te (tempest, storm).

3. A dull sound of a peculiar kind, called **e muet** (mute), because it is the weakest of all the French sounds. It is that *e* which is scarcely heard in tenir (to hold), venir (to come), and is quite inaudible in—

appe*l*er (to call),	pronounced	*ap'ler*.
charre*t*ier (carman),	,,	*char'tier*.
é*l*ever (to bring up),	,,	*él'ver*.
pè*l*erin (pilgrim),	,,	*pèl'rin*.

The *e mute* never takes any accent.

We have seen in § 17 that the Roman *e* was an open *è*, and that the close *e* and the *e* mute were created by the French. We have likewise seen in § 17 from which Latin vowels come the French close *e* and open *e*. As for the *e* mute, it comes from *all* the unaccentuated Latin vowels; thus *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, when unaccentuated in Latin, may all be softened in French into *e* mute, as we see in ros*e* (rose), from ros*a*m, frère (brother), from fratr*e*m, aim*e* (I love), from am*o*, templ*e* (temple), from templ*u*m.

For the origin of the grave and acute accents *see* § 56.

23. No remarks are needed about *short o*, as in dévote (*adj. fem.*, devout), note (bill); but *ô long* is expressed, not only by *ô* as in ap*ô*tre (apostle), le v*ô*tre (yours), but also by *au*, as in *au*tel (altar), se *vau*trer (to wallow), and by *eau*, as in b*eau*té (beauty), épe*au*tre (spelt, bearded wheat). *Cf.* the four ways of expressing the sound of *è open*. *See* § 22, 1.

The Latin *alter*, *alba*, *palma*, *bellum*, become at first *altre*, *albe*, *palme*, *bel* in the old French, which later on softened *l* into *u*; hence *au*tre (other), *au*be (dawn, day-break), p*au*me (palm of the hand), b*eau* (beautiful), in which *au* and *eau* are pronounced *o*, just as the Latin *au* was first pronounced, and then written *o* in French, in *or* (gold), from *au*rum, clos (shut), from cl*au*sus, chose (thing), from c*au*sa, etc.

24. Like *è open* and *ô*, the vowel *eu* is a simple sound, represented in French in three different ways, viz. :—

eu, as in h*eu*re (hour),
œu, „ b*œuf* (ox), *œuf* (egg), s*œur* (sister).
œ and *ue*, „ *œil* (eye), acc*ueil*le (greet [thou]), c*ueil*le (pluck [thou]), org*ueil* (pride),

which are pronounced as if written :—

acc*œuil*le, c*œuil*le, org*œuil*.

We have seen in § 17 that the short Latin *ŏ* becomes *eu* in French, as in n*eu*f (nine), from n*ŏ*vem ; but between *o* and the French *eu* there are the intermediate forms of the French of the Middle Ages ; these were *ue* in the eleventh century, *oe* in the twelfth, *eu* in the fourteenth.* Thus n*ŏ*vem became successively n*uef* in the eleventh century, n*oef* in the twelfth, and n*euf* in the fourteenth. Some words like *accueillir* have remained in the *ue* stage, and have not followed the regular change into *eu:* others, like *œil*, have remained in the second stage, with *oe* contracted into *œ;* finally words like bœuf (ox), sœur (sister), etc., are a compromise between the spelling of the twelfth and fourteenth centuries, between *oe* and *eu*. From *oe* + *eu* has been formed the curious group *œu*, which has remained in such words as sœur (sister), cœur (heart), etc.

25. The vowel *y* between two consonants is pronounced *i*, as in anal*y*se (analysis, parsing), mart*y*r (martyr), presb*y*tère (parsonage) ; but between two vowels it is sounded like two *i*'s, that is to say, that the first *i* is joined to the preceding vowel, as in abo*y*er (to bark), pronounce *aboi-ier*, and not *aboi-er ;* and in pa*y*s (country), pronounce *pai-is*, and not *pa-is*.

* See Brachet's "*Dictionnaire étymologique.*"

Y between two consonants comes from the Greek *υ*: thus analyse (analysis, parsing), comes from *ἀνάλυσις*, which has the same meaning; mart*y*r (martyr), from *μάρτυρ* (he who bears witness).

Y between two vowels is generally used by the French instead of the Latin *c* or *g* between two vowels: thus plo*y*er (to fold), from plicare, no*y*er (to drown), from necare, pa*y*er (to pay), from pacare (*lit.*, to quiet); or it is inserted for the sake of euphony between two vowels to prevent a hiatus; thus *croyant* (believer), from cre[*d*]entem, *écuyer* (equerry, *formerly* shield-bearer), from scu(*t*)arius, which would else have been *cro-ant* and *écu-er*.

CHAPTER III.

COMPOUND VOWELS, OR DIPHTHONGS.

26. A diphthong is the combination of two simple vowels pronounced by a single emission of the voice, as *ui* in h*ui*leux (oily). *Ui*, being a compound of the two vowels *u* and *i*, is a diphthong.

Diphthong comes from the Greek *δὶς* (twice), and *φθόγγος* (sound), = two sounds pronounced at once.

27. In French, diphthongs are formed with the four vowels *i*, *o*, *u*, *ou*, followed by some other vowel of the alphabet.

Thus *i* forms: ia, as in p*ia*no (piano)
ie, ,, p*ie*d (foot)
io, ,, p*io*cher (to dig);
o forms: oa, as in m*oa*bite (moabite)
oe, ,, m*oe*lle (marrow)
oi, ,, r*oi* (king);
u forms: ue, as in écu*ue*lle (bowl)
ui, ,, h*ui*le (oil)
,, ,, s*ui*f (tallow);

Thus *ou* forms: oua, as in *douanier* (custom-house officer)
oue, ,, *fouetter* (to whip)
oui, ,, *oui* (yes)
,, ,, *louis* (louis).

The French diphthongs generally proceed from the falling out of the Latin consonants, as in *écuelle* (bowl), from scu(*t*)ella, or in *moelle* (marrow), from me(*d*)ulla; in these words we see that the disappearance of the *t* and *d* at once bring close together the two vowels whose combination forms a diphthong in French.

CHAPTER IV.

NASAL VOWELS.

28. When a vowel is followed by two consonants, of which the first is *m* or *n*, it is pronounced partly through the nose, as in *con*ter (to relate), to*m*ber (to fall), and is called a **nasal vowel.**

These nasal vowels were unknown to the Romans, who always sounded vowels followed by *m* or *n*. Neither did the French language know them originally; it was not till the end of the eleventh century that these vowels, which had been distinctly pronounced in the time of Hugh Capet, as they are to the present day in Italian, became nasal in French.

29. The same nasal sound is heard when the word ends in *m* or *n*, as in—

an (year)	*son* (sound)
daim (deer)	*ton* (thine)
en (in)	*un* (one)
nom (name)	*vin* (wine).

30. The principal nasal vowels are—

am, as in *pan* (skirt [of a coat])
em, ,, *en* (in)
im, ,, ser*in* (canary)
om, ,, mout*on* (sheep)
um, ,, import*un* (importunate)
eum, ,, à j*eun* (fasting).

Like the vowels, the diphthongs can become *nasal*, thus *ia* gives *ian* in vi*an*de (meat), and *ie* gives *ien* in chrét*ien* (christian), etc.

31. But if another vowel follows *m* or *n*, there is no nasal sound produced: Thus *an* is not nasal in p*an*ais (parsnip), neither *en* in m*en*er (to lead), nor *in* in f*in*ir (to finish), nor *on* in m*on*arque (monarch), nor *un* in chac*un*e, *fem. of chacun*, (everyone). There is also no nasal sound when *m* or *n* are followed by another *m* or *n*, thus:—

an is not a nasal vowel in *an*nuel (annual).
en ,, *en*nemi (enemy).
on ,, *on*ner (to thunder), &c.

CHAPTER V.

CONSONANTS.

32. In the alphabet there are nineteen consonants:—

B, C, D, F, G, H, J, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R, S,
T, V, X, Z,

to which CH should be added.

33. Several of these consonants express the same sound, thus *c*, *k*, *q* have the sound of *c hard*, *e.g.*, cavalier (horseman), *k*akatoès (cockatoo), *q*ualifier (to qualify).

S and *c* are sounded alike in *s*ervir (to serve), and cervelle (brains);

J and *g* in *j*'ai (I have), and *g*eai (jay), *j*oli (pretty), and *g*eôlier (jailer);

Z and *s* in z*é*ro (zero, nought), and d*é*serteur (deserter), which is pronounced d*é*zerteur.

On the other hand, several different sounds are represented by the same letter; for instance, *c hard* is pronounced as *k* in *c*amarade (comrade), and *c soft* is sounded as *s* in *c*ervelle (brains).

These letters are called CONSONANTS, from the Latin word *consona* (that which is pronounced with, by the help of), because the old grammarians believed that a consonant could never be pronounced without the help of a vowel.

34. The consonants are produced by three different parts of the vocal mechanism: the *throat*, the *teeth*, and the *lips*. These organs, by the influence they exercise over the voice, constitute three different sorts of consonants, called **gutturals, dentals,** and **labials.**

I.—Gutturals.

35. The consonants, which are produced by the *throat*, and which are called **gutturals** (from the Latin *guttur*, throat), are six in number: **c, k, q, g, j, ch.**

Two of them, **c** and **g**, have a double sound, viz., *hard* before the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, as in *c*amarade (comrade), *g*amin (street Arab), *c*orridor (passage), *g*obelet (goblet); *c*umuler (to accumulate), *g*uttural (guttural); and *soft* before the vowels *e* and *i*, as in *c*erveau (brains), *g*ermer (to sprout); *c*irer (to black, polish), *g*ibier (game).

In the former case *c* and *g* are called *hard*, and *soft* in the latter.

The Romans were unacquainted with *ch*, which is a French sound derived from the Latin *ca*, *ch*eval (horse), from *ca*ballum, *ch*emin (way, road), from *ca*minum, *ch*enil (kennel), from *ca*nile, *ch*er (dear), from *ca*rum.

They were also ignorant of the soft *c* and *g*; amongst them *c* had always the sound of *k*: *Cicero, facere, celeberrimus* were pronounced *Kikero, fakere, keleberrimus*; so also *ge*-mellus and *gi*-bbosus were pronounced *gue*-mellus, *gui*-bbosus.

36. The guttural consonants are divided into two groups:—

1. Those which cannot be pronounced without the help of a vowel: *k*, *q*, *c* hard, and *g* hard. As *c* hard is represented alike by *c*, *k*, and *q* (*see* § 33), the group is thus reduced to the two consonants, *c* hard and *g* hard, the first of which is called **strong guttural**, as in camp (camp), and the second **soft guttural**, on account of its having a weaker sound, as in *g*aut (glove).

Hard *c* comes from Latin *co*: se*c*ourir (to succour), from su*cc*urrere, se*c* (dry), from si*cc*um, be*c* (beak), from be*cc*um, sa*c* (sack, bag), from sa*cc*um.—Hard *g*, especially at the beginning of a word, comes either from a Latin *g*, as in *g*oût (taste), from *g*ustum, *g*outte (drop), from *g*utta, or from a Latin *v*, as in *g*uêpe (wasp), from *v*espa, *g*aîne (sheath), from *v*agina, *g*ué (ford), from *v*adum, *g*ui (mistletoe), from *v*iscum.

37. 2. Those which can be pronounced without the assistance of vowels: *g soft, j, ch*. But as *g soft*, as in *g*eôle (jail), *g*eai (jay), *g*érer (to manage), has the same sound as *j* in *j*oli (pretty), *j*'ai (I have), *j*érémiade (jeremiad, lamentation), this group is reduced to the two consonants: *j* and *ch*.—*Ch*, as in *ch*atte (puss), is called *hard*, as it is sounded harder than *j* (which is called *soft*), in *j*atte (bowl).

The derivation of the French *ch* has been given in § 35. As for *j*, it comes sometimes from a Latin *j*, as in *j*oug (yoke), from *j*ugum, *j*uste (just), from *j*ustum, *j*anvier (January), from *j*anuarius; sometimes from a Latin *i*, which has become a consonant: thus, Dibionem, and gobionem became Dib*j*onem and gob*j*onem, and so produced Di*j*on (Dijon, a French town), and gou*j*on (gudgeon). Similarly soft *g* comes sometimes from a Latin *g*, as *g*émir (to groan), from *g*emere, *g*endre (son-in-law), from *g*ener, *g*éant (giant), from *g*igantem; and sometimes from a Latin *i*, as in déluge (flood), from diluvium, ser*g*ent

(sergeant), from servientem, pigeon (pigeon), from pipionem, abréger (to abridge), from abbreviare.

2.—Dentals.

38. The consonants, produced by the teeth, and called **dentals** for that reason (from Lat. *dens, dentis*, tooth), are four in number: **t, d, s, z.**

These four consonants come from the Romans, who pronounced the *t* and *d* like the French, but gave to their *s* and *z* a different sound. The Latin *s* was mostly sounded like the soft *s* in French (in rose [rose], position [position], séro [nought], sèle [zeal]); salutem, secundum, rosam, being pronounced salutem, secundum, rosam. The Latin *z*, which the Romans borrowed from the Greek ζ, was sounded like *ds*: zodiacus, zona were pronounced *ds*odiacus, *ds*ona.—*Ti* in Latin was pronounced *ts* before a vowel: amici*ti*a, na*ti*onem, were pronounced amiki*ts*ia na*ts*ionem. Thence comes the French pronunciation of *ti* as *si* (in na*ti*on [nation], por*ti*on [portion, share], iner*ti*e [inertia, inactivity], etc.)

39. There are two groups of dental consonants:

In the first are *t* and *d*, which cannot be pronounced without the help of a vowel, as in *t*arder (to tarry), *d*arder (to dart). In this group *t* is the **strong**, and *d* the **soft dental.**

The second group, composed of *s* and *z*, as in sellé (saddled), and zélé (zealous), can be pronounced without the assistance of a vowel, and comprises two sounds:—

1. *S* hard, as in savoir (to know), seller (to saddle), sureau (elder-tree), which is the **strong** consonant, except when *s* is placed between two vowels, in which case it is sounded like **z**:—

   Cloison (partition) *pronounce* cloizon.
   Poison (poison), ,, poizon.

2. *S* soft, sounded like *z*, and generally written *z*, as in zélé (zealous), zéro (nought), zodiaque (zodiac), but written *s* between two vowels, as in cloison, poison, etc.

T at the beginning of words comes from a simple *t* in Latin, *t*able (table), from *t*abula, *t*enir (to hold), from *t*enere, and in the middle of words from a *t* preceded by a consonant: je*t*er (to throw), from jac*t*are, châ*t*eau (castle), from cas*t*ellum, écri*t*ure (writing), from scrip*t*ura.—D at the beginning of a word comes from a simple *d* in Latin: *d*ire (to say), from *d*icere, *d*eux (two), from *d*uos, *d*om (don), from *d*ominus, and in other cases from a *d* preceded by a consonant: tar*d* (late), from tar*d*e, sour*d* (deaf), from sur*d*um, gland (acorn, tassel), from gland*e*m.—S hard comes from *s* in Latin: *s*eul (alone), from *s*olus, *s*ol (soil, ground), from *s*olum, *s*ervir (to serve), from *s*ervire.—S soft comes either from the Latin *c*: plai*s*ir (pleasure), from placere, voi*s*in (neighbour), from vi*s*inum, rai*s*in (grapes), from ra*c*emum, or from *ti* in Latin preceding a vowel: rai*s*on (reason), from ra*t*ionem, poi*s*on (poison), from po*t*ionem, ti*s*on (fire-brand), from ti*t*ionem.

3.—Labials.

40. The consonants produced by the help of the lips, and for that reason called **labials** (from the Latin *labia*, lips), are **p, b, f, v**, and are divided into two groups.

41. In the first group are *p* and *b*, which cannot be pronounced without the help of a vowel, as in *p*an (skirt [of a coat]), *p*oulet (chicken), *b*anc (bench, form), *b*oulet (cannon ball).

P is the **strong labial**, as in *p*orter (to carry), *p*ourrir (to rot); whilst *b*, which has a weaker sound, as in *b*an (ban), *b*ord (border), *b*ourrer (to stuff), is called the **soft labial.**

P at the beginning of words comes from *p* in Latin: *p*ain (bread), from *p*anem, *p*ort (harbour), from *p*ortum; in the middle of words, from the Latin *p* followed by a consonant: pro*p*re (proper, own), from pro*p*rium, étou*p*e (tow), from stu*p*pa, com*p*let (complete), from com*p*letum.—B at the beginning of the word comes from the Latin *b*: *b*on (good), from *b*onum, *b*ien (well), from *b*enè; in the middle of the word, from the Latin *b*, followed or preceded by the consonants *r*, *l*: ar*b*re (tree), from ar*b*orem, ar*b*uste (shrub), from ar*b*ustum.

42. The second group comprises the consonants which can be pronounced without the help of the vowels, as *f*endre (to cleave), *v*endre (to sell).

F, having a hard sound, as in *f*er (iron), *f*orer (to bore), is called **strong**, and *v*, which has a weaker sound, as in *v*aseux (slimy), *v*er (worm), *v*orace (voracious), is termed **soft.**

F (unless it is at the end of the word) comes from the Latin *f: f*able (fable), from *f*abula, *f*aire (to do *or* make), from *f*acere; or from its equivalent *ph: f*aisan (pheasant), from *ph*asianum, *f*antôme (phantom), from *ph*antasma. At the end of words it comes from the Latin *v*, which, in that case, always becomes *f* in French: bre*f* (short), from bre*v*em, neu*f* (new), from no*v*um, cle*f* (key), from cla*v*em, ne*f* (nave), from na*v*em, œuf (egg), from o*v*um.—V at the beginning of a word comes from the Latin *v: v*ain (vain), from *v*anum, *v*in (wine), from *v*inum; but in the middle of the words it comes sometimes from *p: r*i*v*e (bank, shore), from ri*p*a, lou*v*e (she-wolf), from lu*p*a, sa*v*eur (savour), from sa*p*orem, ne*v*eu (nephew), from ne*p*otem; and sometimes from *b: d*e*v*oir (to owe), from de*b*ere, a*v*oir (to have), from ha*b*ere, che*v*al (horse), from ca*b*allum, fè*v*e (bean), from fa*b*a.

4.—Liquids and Nasals.

43. The two consonants **l** and **r** are called *liquids* (from the Latin *liquidus*, liquid, flowing), because these two letters are easily joined to other consonants, such as *p*, *b*, *c*, to form groups of letters quite liquid (*easy to pronounce*), such as *bl* in *bl*anc (white), *pl* in *pl*aine (plain), *cl* in *cl*ameur (clamour, outcry), *gl* in *gl*oire (glory), or *pr* in *pr*emier (first), *cr* in *cr*oire (to believe), *br* in *br*uit (noise), *gr* in *gr*andir (to grow).

L comes generally from the Latin *l: l*angue (tongue), from *l*ingua, dou*l*eur (grief), from do*l*orem.—R comes sometimes from the Latin *r: m*e*r* (sea), from ma*r*e, che*r* (dear), from ca*r*us, amou*r* (love), from amo*r*em; sometimes from *l: é*pî*tr*e (epistle), from epist*o*la, apô*tr*e (apostle), from apost*o*lum, ti*tr*e (title), from titu*l*um; and sometimes from *n: diacr*e (deacon), from diaco*n*um, ordre (order), from ordi*n*em, pampre (vine branch), from pampi*n*um.

44. The two consonants *m* and *n* are called **nasal** (from the Latin *nasus*, nose), because they give to the vowels a peculiar sound proceeding from the nose, as *an* in m*an*ger (to eat), v*an*ter (to praise). (*See* §§ 28, 29, 30, and 31.)

M comes generally from the Latin *m*: *m*er (sea), from *m*are, fai*m* (hunger), from fa*m*em, no*m* (name), from no*m*en.—N comes generally from the Latin *n*: *n*ez (nose), from *n*asum, *n*ul (none), from *n*ullum, *n*oix (walnut), from *n*ucem, but also from *m* followed by a consonant: co*n*ter (to relate), from co*m*putare, ran*ç*on (ransom), from rede*m*ptionem, so*n*ge (dream), from so*m*nium, and from final *m*: mo*n* (mine), from meu*m*, rie*n* (nothing), from re*m*, to*n* (thine), from tuu*m*, so*n* (his, her, its), from suu*m*, etc.

45. The liquid *l* and the nasal *n* become liquid in some cases, that is to say, they are pronounced as if followed by a very weak *i*, audible, for instance, in campa*gn*ard (countryman), and travai*ll*er (to work).

L *liquid* is written *ill* in the middle of words, as in bâi*ll*er (to yawn), and ve*ill*er (to watch), and *il* at the end of words, as in travai*l* (work), vermei*l* (silver-gilt).

N *liquid* is written *gn*, as in vi*gn*e (vine), and campa*gn*e (country).

Ill comes generally from the Latin *li* or *le* before a vowel: fi*ll*e (daughter), from fi*li*a, fami*ll*e (family), from fami*li*a, pai*ll*e (straw), from pa*le*a, vai*ll*e [qu'il] (3rd pers. sing. of the present subjunctive of the verb *valoir*, to be worth), from va*le*at. *Gn* comes from the Latin *ni*: campa*gn*e (country), from campa*ni*a, cigo*gn*e (stork), from cicoⁿia, oi*gn*on (onion), from u*ni*onem.

5.—Summary.

46. We have now examined all the consonants of the alphabet, with the exception of **x** and **h**. Effectively **x** is not more a simple consonant than *bl* is in *bl*anc (white), or *cr* in *cr*aindre (to fear);

For luxueux (luxurious) is pronounced luesueux.
exact (exact) „ egzact.
examen (examination) „ egzamen;

showing that in reality *x* is not a new sound, but the combination of two sounds (*cs* and *gz*), the first of which is a

guttural consonant, *c* or *g* (*see* § 35), and the second a *dental consonant*, *s* or *z* (*see* § 38).

N.B.—The presence of *s* or *z* in *x* explains the reason why the words ending in *x* in the singular, as heureu*x* (happy), pri*x* (price *or* prize), voi*x* (voice), do not change in the plural; it would be useless to add *s*, since it is already contained in *x*.

X comes sometimes from x in Latin: si*x* (six), from *sex*, soi*x*ante (sixty), from *sexaginta*; and sometimes from *c*: voi*x* (voice), from *vocem*, croi*x* (cross), from *crucem*, di*x* (ten), from *decem*, pai*x* (peace), from *pacem*, noi*x* (walnut), from *nucem*.

47. H is the weakest of all the consonants, just as *e silent* or *mute* is the weakest vowel. There are two kinds of *h's*:—

1. *H silent* (or *mute*), which does not represent any sound, and over which leaps the elision of the article *le* or *la*, exactly as if the article was coming into contact with the vowel itself. Examples:—

*L'h*omme (the man), *l'h*abitude (the habit);

Exactly as in—

*L'a*baissement (the abasement), *l'o*béissance (the obedience).

2. *H aspirate*, which in French is not more heard than *h silent*, but which differs from it by preventing the elision:—

*Le h*éros (the hero), *la h*oulette (the shepherd's crook).

The Latin *h* was strongly aspirated, like the German or English *h*. This aspiration having been lost in French, *h* disappeared, as in *a*voir (to have), from *h*abere, *o*n (one, they, people), from *h*omo, *o*r (now, then), from *h*ora. In Old French the words *h*omme (man), from hominem, *h*abit (dress), from *h*abitum, *h*eure (hour), from *h*ora, were written *o*me, *a*bit, *e*ure; but towards the fifteenth century the Latinists and scholars brought back the Latin *h*, without, however, being able to revive the Latin aspiration which had been originally abandoned.

48. To sum up, the French consonants are thus divided :—

	CONSONANTS pronounced WITH the help of the vowels.		CONSONANTS pronounced WITHOUT the help of the vowels.	
	STRONG.	SOFT.	STRONG.	SOFT.
GUTTURALS	*c* hard (*k*)	*g* hard	*ch*	*j* or *g* soft
DENTALS	*t*	*d*	*s* (*c* soft)	*z*
LABIALS	*p*	*b*	*f*	*v*

2 liquids : *l*, *r*.—2 nasal consonants : *m*, *n*.—1 aspirate : *h*.—1 double consonant : *x*.

CHAPTER VI.

SYLLABLES.—TONIC ACCENT.

49. A **syllable** is one or several sounds which are pronounced without interruption, and by a single emission of the voice. Thus *ôté* (taken away, past participle of *ôter*) is formed of two syllables, the first of which is composed of only one vowel (*ô*), and the second of a consonant (*t*) and a vowel (*é*).

50. When a syllable ends with an *e silent* (or *mute*), as *me*, in j'ai*me* (I love), it is called **silent** (or **mute**).

51. All the syllables of a word are *never* pronounced equally; thus, when we say: **marches** (walk *or* march [ye]), **cherchons** (let us search), the last syllable is more strongly pronounced than the first, whilst, on the contrary, the stress is laid on the first in **mar**che (walk [thou]), **cher**che (seek [thou]), because the last syllable is mute. That raising of the voice on a particular syllable in every word is called **tonic accent**, and the syllable on which falls that accent is called the **accented** or **tonic syllable**.

In French the accented syllable is always the last of the word, as mou**ton** (sheep), che**val** (horse), il ai**ma** (he loved), except when the word ends in *e mute*, as tabl*e* (table), aimabl*e* (amiable), lisibl*e* (legible), in which case the tonic accent is carried back to the penultimate: **ta***ble*, *aima**ble***, *lisi**ble***.

The tonic accent has been borrowed from the Latin, where it was always placed on the penultimate (*amāre*, *finīre*, *labōrem*), when that syllable was long (*amāre*, *finīre*, *labōrem*); in French it has been kept on the syllable which was accented in Latin, and the French, in pronouncing it, raise the voice on the same syllable the Romans did.

But, when instead of being long, the penultimate was short, the Romans placed the accent on the syllable preceding the penultimate, and pronounced *pŏrticus*, *pĕrtica*, *durăbilis*. In order to keep the accent on the same syllable, the French have been obliged to contract these words by cutting off all the vowels which followed the syllable accented in Latin: thus, in this instance, by cutting off the short *i* of *durăb*(*i*)*lis*, *pĕrt*(*i*)*ca*, *pŏrt*(*i*)*cus*, they said *durable* (lasting), *perche* (pole, perch), *porche* (porch), and managed to keep the tonic accent where it was in Latin.

52. Therefore in every word there is an **accented** or **tonic syllable, and only one.** The other syllables are called **unaccented,** or **atonic.** Thus, in *aima**ble***, *ma* is the accented syllable, whilst *ai* and *ble* are *unaccented* or *atonic*; in *charre***tier**, *tier* is accented, whilst *char* and *re* are *atonic*, as shown by the pronunciation—*char*'**tier**.

Atone (= *without accent*), is derived from *ἀ privative*, and τόνος (*tone, accent*).

53. When from a single word, such as *chand***elle** (the accent being on *elle*) comes a derivative, *chand***elier** (*lier* being the accented syllable), the syllable *elle*, which was accented in the simple word, becomes naturally unaccented in the derivative, and **e** loses then in *chandelier* the full sound it had in *chandelle*. This weakening of the sound of a vowel is often marked by a change of the vowel itself; thus **ai**, accented in *faim* (hunger), *clair* (clear), *grain* (grain, corn), becomes unaccented in the derivatives *famine* (famine), *clarté* (brightness), *grenier* (granary), *grenetier* (seed-merchant); *ai* is then changed either into *a*, as in famine, clarté, or in *e* mute, as in grenier, grenetier.

In the same way, in order to sound, in the present of the indicative, the *e* mute of the infinitive of such verbs as appeler (to call), rejeter (to throw back), acheter (to buy), peler (to peel), mener (to lead), the French sometimes double the consonant, as in j'appe**ll**e (I call), je reje**tt**e (I throw back), thus increasing the sound of *e*; and sometimes place a grave accent over the *e*, as in j'achète (I buy), je pèle (I peel), je mène (I lead).

When the French language was being formed, the short vowels in Latin, when *accented* (as *ĕ* in *vĕnio*, *tĕneo*, for instance), were distinguished from the same vowels when *unaccented* (as e in *vĕnire*, *tĕnere*), in this way: the accented vowel was changed into a diphthong (the Latin *e*, for instance, became *ie*), whence, je v**ie**ns (I come, *vĕnio*), je t**ie**ns (I hold, *tĕneo*), whilst that *e* remained intact when it was not accented in Latin: v**e**nir (to come, *vĕnire*), t**e**nir (to hold, *tĕnere*), etc. Later, this way of distinguishing between accented and unaccented vowels was followed in the formation of new words: this is the reason why the diphthong ie in *chevalier* (knight), *épicier* (grocer), *lièvre* (hare), *sellier* (saddler), has become e in *chevalerie* (knighthood), *épicerie* (grocery), *levrier* (greyhound), *sellerie* (saddlery), instead of *chevallerie*, *épicierie*, etc. In these words the diphthong ie is accented, whilst the e in *chevalerie*, *épicerie* is atone.

CHAPTER VII.

ORTHOGRAPHIC SIGNS.

54. The name of **orthographic signs** is given to certain signs used in writing, either to indicate the changes of the same vowel, as *o* and *ô*, *é* and *è*, *ai* and *aï*; or the suppression of a letter, as in *l'épée* for *la épée* (the sword); and, lastly, the joining of two or three words into one, as *arc-en-ciel* (rainbow), *pied-à-terre* (temporary lodging).

55. There are five kinds of *orthographic signs, viz.*, the *accents*, the *cedilla*, the *diœresis*, the *apostrophe*, and the *hyphen*.

56. The **accents** are three in number: the *circumflex* (^), the *grave* (`), and the *acute* (´). We have explained their principal use in §§ 18 and 22. Let us add here, that the grave accent is used to distinguish between two words spelt alike, but having different meanings, as—

A (he has), *verb*, and **à** (to), *preposition*, as in: *il* **a** *donné un cheval* **à** *son frère* (he has given a horse to his brother);

La (the), *article fem.*, and **là** (there), *adverb*, as in: **la** *mer est venue jusque-*__là__ (the sea came as far as that);

Où (where), *adverb*, and **ou** (or), *conjunction*, as in: *j'irai* **où** *il voudra, à Paris* **ou** *à Rome* (I shall go where he likes, to Paris or to Rome).

Des (of the, *or* some), *article*, and **dès** (from, since), *preposition*, as in: *la neige* **des** *montagnes fondit* **dès** *l'arrivée du printemps* (the snow of [on] the mountains melted as soon as spring arrived [set in]).

These accents, unknown in the old language, were borrowed from the Greek (where they were used for a very different purpose), by the French grammarians of the sixteenth century.

57. These three accents, which are merely orthographical signs, must not be mistaken for the *tonic accent*, which is the raising of the voice on one of the syllables of the word. (*See* § 49, and foll.)

58. The **cedilla** is a sign (¸) placed under the *c* before *a*, *o*, *u*, when it has a soft sound, as in façade (frontage, façade), façon (form, shape), rinçure (rinsings), instead of its regular hard sound before the same vowels, as in *c*amarade (comrade), *c*olombe (dove), *c*urieux (inquisitive).

The *cedilla* (introduced in the sixteenth century) was borrowed from the Italian printers, who called *zediglia* a little crotchet like a *z* placed under *c*, when it was to be pronounced *z* instead of *k*. The Italian word comes from *zeta* (*z*), and means properly "small z."

59. In order to show when two vowels following each other are to be pronounced separately, the sign (¨) called **tr**ème (diæresis) is placed over the second: thus **uë** in *ciguë* (hemlock). Without the diæresis this word would be pronounced *cig*, because *ue* would be mute as in fig*ue* (fig), lig*ue* (league).

It is the same for **aï** in haïr, which, without the diæresis, would be pronounced *air*, as in *a*ir (the air), cl*a*ir (clear), fl*a*ir (scent), p*a*ir (equal, like).

The *tréma* was also introduced in the sixteenth century.
This word is derived from the Greek τρῆμα, "point, dot," properly "hole."

60. The **apostrophe** (') denotes the suppression of the vowels *a*, *e*, *i*, at the end of a word, and before another word beginning with a vowel or *h silent*, as in :—

*L'*épée (the sword)	instead of	*la-épée*
*J'*arrive (I arrive)	„	*je-arrive*
*S'*il vient (if he comes)	„	*si-il vient*
*L'*honneur (the honour)	„	*le-honneur*

This sign was invented in the sixteenth century. Its name was borrowed from the Greek ἀπόστροφος, "that which turns off,"

suppression (elision) of the vowel preventing the **hiatus** which would be caused by the discordant meeting of two vowels.

61. The **hyphen,** called in French **trait d'union,** joins together either the different parts of a compound word, as *arc-en-ciel* (rainbow), *chef-lieu* (chief *or* county town), *vis-à-vis* (opposite); or the verb with its subject (in the interrogative conjugation), as in *irai-je* (shall I go)? *viendrez-vous* (will you come)? or with its object, as in *croyez-moi* (believe me), *venez-y-voir* (come hither and see).

BOOK II.

STUDY OF WORDS.

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STUDY OF WORDS.

62. All the words used in the French language belong necessarily to one of the **ten** following classes, subdivided into *two* groups:—A, words called *variable*, because their termination is liable to changes; and B, words called *invariable*, because their termination is never altered:

A. VARIABLE:	B. INVARIABLE:
1. **Le nom** (noun)	6. **Le participe** (participle) *
2. **L'article** (article)	7. **La préposition** (preposition)
3. **L'adjectif** (adjective)	8. **L'adverbe** (adverb)
4. **Le pronom** (pronoun)	9. **a conjonction** (conjunction)
5. **Le verbe** (verb)	10. **L'interjection** (interjection).

63. These ten kinds of different words, which by their combination form the French language, may be compared to the different parts of the human body, and for that reason have been called by grammarians **parts of speech**—that is to say, *the parts of the language.* Let us now examine them in succession.

All these parts of speech (with the exception of the *article* unknown to the Romans) passed from the Latin into French.

* The past participle is *sometimes* variable, and this will be found explained in the Syntax.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE NOUN OR SUBSTANTIVE.

64. The **noun** or **substantive** is a word used to name persons, animals, or things.

Roman Grammarians called the noun *nomen substantivum* (noun substantive), *i.e.*, noun which designates the *nature*, *matter*, *substance* of objects, such as *bois* (wood), *pierre* (stone), in opposition to the *nomen adjectivum* (noun adjective), *i.e.*, "noun added to . . .", a word adding to the noun substantive the idea of a quality (*blanc*, white; *noir*, black; etc.). French Grammarians, by abandoning these denominations and giving to the word *noun* the meaning of the expression *noun substantive*, have committed a grave error, since they expressed a particular idea by a general term. To say *noun* and *adjective* instead of *noun substantive* and *noun adjective* is almost as illogical as to say un *cheval* (a horse) for *un cheval noir* (a black horse), and *un blanc* (a white) for un *cheval blanc* (a white horse). But the mistake has become a custom, and the custom a law.

65. There are two kinds of nouns: **proper** nouns and **common** nouns.

The **proper** noun applies either to one *person* only, as *Pierre* (Peter), *Paul* (Paul), *Louis* (Louis), or to one *thing* only, as *Le Rhône* (river Rhone), *La Loire* (river Loire).

REMARK.—Proper nouns begin always with a capital letter.

The **common** noun designates either all the *persons* of the same nature, as *enfant* (child), *marchand* (merchant), *soldat* (soldier); or *things* of the same kind, as *cour* (court, yard), *jardin* (garden), *maison* (house).

66. Collective nouns are those which express a collection of persons or things, as *foule* (crowd), *troupe* (troop), *multitude* (multitude).

Compound nouns are those which, although formed of two or three words, designate one single person or thing, as *choufleur* (cauliflower), *arc-en-ciel* (rainbow).

67. In nouns two things are to be studied and examined—*gender* and *number*.

SECTION I.

OF GENDER IN NOUNS.

68. Gender is the difference or distinction which is made between male and female beings. In French there are but two genders:—the **masculine**, for men and males of animals, as *l'homme* (man), *le père* (the father), *le lion* (the lion); and the **feminine**, for women and females of animals, as *la femme* (woman), *la mère* (the mother), *la lionne* (the lioness).

Moreover, names of things which belong to neither sex have been made, by imitation, masculine or feminine. Thus *le bois* (the wood), *le château* (the castle), *le pays* (the country), are masculine; whilst *la cour* (the court, yard), *la grille* (the grate, railing), *la lune* (the moon) are feminine.

Out of the three Latin genders the French language adopted only two, the *masculine* and the *feminine*. Let us see how the *neuter* disappeared, and the reason why French substantives are either masculine or feminine:—

1°. Substantives, *masculine* in Latin, generally remained masculine in French: thus *mund*us, *mur*us, *fili*us have given *le* monde (the world), *le* mur (the wall), *le* fils (the son). The only exception to this rule is that the abstract nouns ending in *or*, *masculine* in Latin, have become *feminine* in French (dol*or*, *la* douleur, *grief*; vap*or*, *la* vapeur, *vapour*, *steam*; col*or*, *la* couleur, *colour*; terr*or*, *la* terreur, *terror*). *Honneur* (honour), *amour* (love), and *labeur* (labour), are the only French masculine substantives derived from masculine Latin nouns ending in *or* (hon*or*, am*or*, lab*or*); and yet *honneur* was feminine in the Middle Ages, as well as *amour* (as it is proved by its derivative amour*ette* (love affair) which has remained feminine, and the locutions *de belles amours* (fine loves), *les premières amours* (first love), etc.). These feminine nouns vexed the Latinists and pedants of the sixteenth century, who, wishing to give them back the gender they had in Latin, created *le* labeur (labour), from *labor*, and tried to make *amour* of the masculine only. This attempt failed, but from that time *amour*, by a strange rule, has become masculine in the singular, and feminine in the plural.

2°. Substantives, *feminine* in Latin, have also remained *feminine* in French: ros*a*, lun*a*, filia=*la* rose (the rose), *la* lune (moon), *la* fille (the girl *or* daughter).

3°. Substantives, *neuter* in Latin, became in French either masculine or feminine. The Roman people, having soon forgotten the reasons

why originally the neuter gender had been given to certain things instead of the masculine, began early to suppress it entirely in favour of the masculine. This mistake, which Grammarians of the Empire mention as very common, is often met with in inscriptions, where ignorant engravers or sculptors put templ*us*, membr*us*, brachi*us*, for templ*um*, membr*um*, brachi*um*, etc. Later on, at the fall of the Empire, analogy was the cause of a grosser error still, the neutral plural in *a* (foli*a*, cornu*a*, pir*a*, pom*a*) being then mistaken for a singular nominative of the first declension (ros*a*). In texts of Merovingian Latin we find such monstrous accusatives as *pecoras*, *folias*, etc. Hence the French *feminine* substantives: *la* feuille (the leaf), *la* poire (the pear), *la* pomme (the apple), *la* corne (the horn), although derived from the Latin neuter *folium*, *pirum*, *pomum*, *cornu*. This is also the reason why *orgue* (from the Latin neuter *organum*) was *feminine* in Old French (*une belle orgue*, a fine organ; *de grandes orgues*, a large organ). The Latinists of the sixteenth century, on account of the etymology of the word, said *un bel orgue*, *de beaux orgues*, whilst the unlearned persisted in using the feminine gender. Grammarians put an end to this conflict between the *savants* and the people by enacting that henceforth *orgue* should be *masculine in the singular* and *feminine in the plural*. See § 75.

69. Feminine nouns are generally formed by adding an **e mute** to the masculine—

Marquis (marquis)	*Marquise* (marchioness)
Ours (bear)	*Ourse* (she-bear).

Besides, when the masculine noun ends with an **n** which gives a dull and nasal sound to the preceding vowel (see § 29), the *n* is doubled, and the nasal sound disappears before the *e mute* (see § 31) as—

Baron (baron)	*Baron*ne (baroness)
Chrétien (Christian)	*Chrétien*ne (Christian)
Lion (lion)	*Lion*ne (lioness).

The Latin feminine was in *a:* from *lupus* (*loup*, wolf), was formed *lupa* (*louve*, she-wolf). That *a* became naturally *e* in French as in *porte* (door), from *porta*, *rose* (rose), from *rosa*.

70. EXCEPTIONS.—(A) About twenty substantives form their feminine by changing **e** final into **esse**, as—

M.	F.
Âne (ass)	*Âne***sse** (she-ass)
Chanoine (canon)	*Chanoine***sse** (canoness)
Comte (count)	*Comte***sse** (countess)
Hôte (host)	*Hôte***sse** (hostess)
Maître (master)	*Maîtresse* (mistress)
Nègre (negro)	*Négresse* (negress)
Prêtre (priest)	*Prêtresse* (priestess)
Prince (prince)	*Princesse* (princess)
Prophète (prophet)	*Prophétesse* (prophetess)
Suisse (Swiss)	*Suisse***sse** (Swiss woman)
Tigre (tiger)	*Tigresse* (tigress)
Traître (traitor)	*Traîtresse* (traitor).

(B) Added to substantives ending in **eur**, such as *pêcheur* (sinner), *chasseur* (hunter), that final *esse* does not give *pêcheuresse*, *chasseuresse*, but *pêcheresse*, *chasseresse*.* In these words *eur* being no longer accented (see § 53), is lessened into *er*, and the voice falls with force on the final *esse*, which becomes then the tonic syllable of the word.

For the historical account of the final *esse*, which in words ending in *eur* has been replaced at an early date by the final *euse*, as *chanteur* (singer), *chanteuse*† (singing woman), *buveur* drinker), *buveuse* (drinking woman), see § 109.

(C) The final **teur** is often changed into **trice**, as—

M.	F.
*Ac*teur (actor)	*Ac*trice (actress)
*Admira*teur (admirer)	*Admira*trice (admirer)
*Adula*teur (flatterer)	*Adula*trice (flatterer)
*Conciliat*eur (conciliator)	*Conciliat*rice (conciliator)
*Consola*teur (comforter)	*Consola*trice (comforter)
*Créa*teur (creator)	*Créa*trice (creatress)
*Débi*teur (debtor)	*Débi*trice (debtor)
*Exécu*teur (executor)	*Exécu*trice (executrix)
*Fonda*teur (founder)	*Fonda*trice (foundress)
*Institu*teur (teacher)	*Institu*trice (governess)
*Inven*teur (inventor)	*Inven*trice (inventress)
*Média*teur (mediator)	*Média*trice (mediatress)

* *Chasseresse* is only used in poetry, as an epithet of Diana: *Diane chasseresse*. In all other cases *chasseuse* is the feminine of *chasseur*.

† *Cantatrice* is used for a celebrated singer.

Négociateur (negociator)	*Négociatrice* (negotiatrix)
Persécuteur (persecutor)	*Persécutrice* (persecutrix)
Protecteur (protector)	*Protectrice* (protectress)
Spectateur (spectator)	*Spectatrice* (spectatress)
Tuteur (guardian)	*Tutrice* (guardian, tutrix);

etc., etc. (see § 134).

Most of these substantives are also used as adjectives.

71. In a very few cases the feminine form is shorter than the masculine, as—

F.	M.
Cane (duck)	*Canard* (drake)
Chiffe (rag)	*Chiffon* (rag)
Coche (sow)	*Cochon* (pig)
Compagne (female companion)	*Compagnon* (companion)
Mante (lady's mantle)	*Manteau* (cloak)
Mule (she-mule)	*Mulet* (he-mule)
Taure (yearling heifer)	*Taureau* (bull)
Vieille (old woman)	*Vieillard* (old man).

N.B.—The masculine forms are derived from the feminine through the terminations *ard*, *on*, *eau*, *et*.

One must not conclude from these examples that there are in French masculine nouns formed from the feminine. The rule is that all the feminine nouns come from the masculine, and the apparent irregularity we have just noticed is explained by the history of the language. All the feminine substantives mentioned above, had, in Old French, masculine forms which are no longer used. Thus, in the eleventh century, people said *un mul* (a he-mule), from the Latin *mulus*, and *une mule* (a she-mule), from *mula*, and the diminutive *mulet* (derived from *mul*, in the same way as *sachet*, satchel, from *sac*, bag, sack), meant only *the colt of a mule*. Later, the word *mul* having disappeared, *mulet* was adopted in its stead as the masculine of *mule*, not, however, with the diminutive meaning it had formerly, but with that of *mul* in the old language.

Irregularities in the Gender of Nouns.

72. Some nouns are at the same time masculine and feminine, according to circumstances.

73. The abstract nouns **aide, critique, élève, garde, manœuvre, statuaire,** are—

(A) feminine when they denote: **the action** *of helping, e.g., l'aide puissante* de Dieu (the powerful help of God); *of criticising, e.g., la critique* est *bonne* (the criticism [review] is good); *of rearing, breeding, e.g., l'élève productive* des bestiaux (the productive breeding of cattle); *of keeping, watching over, e.g., la garde* des frontières (the watching over the frontiers); *of manœuvring, working, e.g., la manœuvre* d'un navire (the working of a ship); *the art of making statues, e.g., la statuaire des anciens* (the statuary of the ancients).

(B) They become masculine when they denote **the man who accomplishes those different actions,** *e.g., un critique* (a critic), *un garde-chasse* (a game-keeper), *un aide-chirurgien* (an assistant-surgeon), *un manœuvre* (a workman), *un statuaire* (a sculptor), *un élève* (a pupil, *or* an animal reared).*

74. Aigle (eagle), *properly and figuratively,* is *masculine* when it designates the male bird or a man, as—

L'aigle est fier et courageux (the eagle is proud and courageous)
Cet homme est un aigle (this man is a genius).

It is *feminine* when it means the female of the eagle or a military standard, as—

Une aigle attaqua un vautour (an eagle attacked a vulture)
L'aigle romaine (the Roman eagle).

The Latin *aquila,* from which *aigle* is derived, is *feminine.*

75. Amour (love), **délice** (delight), and **orgue** (organ), are *masculine* in the singular—

L'amour *filial* (filial love)	Les *premières* amours (first love)
Un délice *enivrant* (an intoxicating pleasure, delight)	De *joyeuses* délices (joyful delights)
Un bel orgue (fine organ)	De *belles* orgues (fine organ).

For *amour* and *orgue,* see § 68. *Délice,* from the Latin feminine

* The *élève,* however, does not *accomplish* the action, but *receives* the effect of the action of another person.

plural *deliciæ*, was always feminine in Old French, but, as in the singular, the Latin word (*delicium*) is neuter, the French Grammarians of the sixteenth century decided that *délice* should be *masculine in the singular* and *feminine in the plural.*

76. Chose in the locution *quelque chose de* is *masculine*, as—

J'ai appris quelque chose de fâcheux (I have heard some sad news, *lit.* something sad).

Chose comes from the Latin feminine *causa.*

77. Foudre is *feminine* when it means *lightning, thunderbolt*, as—

La foudre sillonne les nues (the lightning flashes through the clouds);

but it is *masculine* when used *figuratively*, as—

Un foudre de guerre (a doughty warrior),
Un foudre d'éloquence (a very eloquent orator).

Foudre comes from the Latin neuter *fulgur.*

78. Gent is *feminine* in the singular, and means *race, tribe, crowd*, as—

La gent *moutonnière* (the ovine race)
La gent *criarde* (the noisy crowd).

In the plural (**gens**) it means *men, people*, and remains *feminine* if an adjective comes before it, as—

Les *bonnes* gens (good folks);

but it becomes *masculine* if an adjective follows it, as—

Les gens de ce pays sont *bons* (the people of that country are good).
Les *vieilles* gens sont *soupçonneux* (old people are suspicious).

The word *tout* is an exception, as it remains *masculine* whether it comes before or after the word gens, as—

Tous les gens que j'ai *vus* (all the people I have seen).
Ces *bonnes* gens sont *tous ennuyeux* (these good folks are all tiresome).

Tout, however, becomes *feminine* when it precedes an adjective not having the same termination for both genders. Thus it is right to say: *tous* les honnêtes gens (all honest people), because *honnête* is spelt alike for the masculine and feminine, but *tous* les *bonnes* gens (all good people) would be wrong; it must be *toutes* les *bonnes* gens.

Gent (from the Lat. *gentem*, nation) is feminine, and meant formerly *nation, people*:

"Ô combien lors aura de veuves
La gent qui porte le turban!"
—MALHERBE (1556–1628).

(Oh, how many widows will there be then among the people that wear turbans!) But it soon lost that meaning in the plural (which, however, is still now kept in "le droit des *gens*," for "le droit des nations," *the law of nations*), for that of *men, individuals*, as: *les gens* de ce pays (the men of that country), *les gens* de mer (the sailors, etc.). Just as the feminine word *personne*, with the meaning of *man*, became masculine in such locutions as: *Personne* n'est *bon* dans ce pays (there is no good man in this country); *personne* n'est *venu* (no one has come), the idea of *man* causing its proper gender to be forgotten,—so the new idea of *man, individual*, caused the change of gender in the word *gens*. This conflict between the two genders has given rise to the double rule above explained.

79. Hymne, when meaning a hymn (of the church), is *feminine*, as—

Les **anciennes hymnes** *de l'église ont le mérite de la simplicité* (the ancient hymns of the Church have the merit of simplicity);

but it is *masculine* in all other senses, as—

Chaque peuple a son hymne national (every nation has its national hymn).

Hymne comes from the Latin masculine *hymnus*, from the Greek ὕμνος.

80. Orge (barley), is *feminine*, as—

De belle *orge* (some fine barley);

but, according to the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*, is *masculine* in the expressions—

Orge **perlé** (pearl barley),
Orge **mondé** (Scotch barley, husked barley).

81. The following substantives have also a different meaning according to their gender :—

	M.	F.
Crêpe,	crape,	pancake.
Livre,	book,	pound.
Manche,	handle,	sleeve.
Mémoire,	memoir, bill,	memory.
Mode,	mood,	fashion.
Moule,	mould,	mussel.
Mousse,	cabin-boy,	moss.
Page,	page (boy),	page (of a book).
Pendule,	pendulum,	clock, timepiece.
Période,	highest pitch,	period.
Poêle,	stove, pall,	frying-pan.
Somme,	nap, slumber,	sum.
Souris,	smile,	mouse.
Tour,	turn ; trick ; lathe,	tower.
Vase,	vase, vessel,	slime.
Voile,	veil,	sail.

ETYMOLOGY.—Crêpe (*masc.* and *fem.*), from Lat. *crispus*, curled.—Livre (*masc.*), from Lat. acc. *masc. librum ;* livre (*fem.*) from Lat. *fem libra.*—Manche (both *masc.* and *fem.*), from Lat *fem. manica.*—Mémoire (both *masc.* and *fem.*), from Lat *fem. memoria.*—Mode (both *masc.* and *fem.*), from Lat. acc. *masc. modum.*—Moule (*masc.*), from Lat. acc. *masc modulum ;* moule (*fem.*), from Lat. acc. *masc. musculum.*—Mousse (*masc.*), from Italian *mozzo*, "a lad" ; mousse (*fem.*), from Old High German *mos.*—Page (*masc.*), from Greek παίδιον, "little boy" ; page (*fem.*), from Lat. *fem. pagina.*—Pendule (*masc.* and *fem.*), from Lat. adj. *pendulus, pendula.*—Période (both *masc.* and *fem.*), from Lat. acc. *fem. periodum* (from Greek περίοδος).—Poêle (*masc.*), from Lat. neut. *pensile* (*properly* "suspended") ; poêle (*fem.*), from Lat. *fem. patella.*—Somme (*masc.*), from Lat. acc. *masc. somnum ;* somme (*fem.*), from Lat. *fem. summa.*—Tour (*masc.*), from Lat. acc. *tornum*, "turner's wheel," tour (*fem.*), from Lat. acc. *turrim.*—Vase (*masc.*), from Lat. neut. *vas ;* vase (*fem.*), from Anglo-Saxon *vase* —Voile (*masc.*), from Lat. neut. *velum*, and voile (*fem.*), from *vela*, the plural of the same Lat. substantive.

SECTION II.

OF NUMBER IN NOUNS.

82. The **number** is the difference or distinction which is made between one single thing and several things collected together.

83. In French, as in English, there are two numbers—the **singular**, to denote one person or one thing, as *le lion* (the lion), *le livre* (the book); and the **plural**, to denote several persons or things, as *les lions* (the lions), *les livres* (the books).

These two numbers come from the Latin singular and plural, and generally the French substantives follow exactly the number of the Latin substantives from which they are derived. Some few only which had no singular in Latin, such as *nuptiæ* (wedding), *arma* (arms), are used in French both in the singular and plural: *noce, arme; noces, armes.* Others, on the contrary, which possessed both numbers in Latin, are only used in the plural in French: *mœurs* (manners, morals), from *mores; ancêtres* (*ancestors*), from *antecessores* (Châteaubriand, however, has said *un ancêtre*). See *additional Remarks, III.*

84. GENERAL RULE.—The plural of nouns is formed by adding **s** to the singular: *L'homme* (man), *les hommes* (men); *le livre* (the book), *les livres* (the books).

The six cases of the Latin declension which expressed shades of thought too delicate for the popular tongue were first reduced in the Merovingian Latin to two cases (*nominative* and *accusative*), and later, in French, towards the fourteenth century, to the *accusative alone.* Now, the Latin accusative (*rosam, nidum, colorem*, had no *s*: hence the French words *rose* (rose), *nid* (nest), *couleur* (colour), have no *s* in the singular. But in the plural the distinctive mark of the accusative was *s*, and *rosas, nidos, colores* gave naturally *roses, nids, couleurs.* This is the reason why *s*, in preference to *m* or *b*, or any other letter, has been used in French to mark the difference between the singular and the plural.

85. When a noun in the singular already ends in *s*, *x*, or *z*, it does not change in the plural—

*le fil***s** (the son)	*des fil***s** (sons)
*le héro***s** (the hero)	*des héro***s** (heroes)
*une noi***x** (a walnut)	*des noi***x** (walnuts)
*la voi***x** (the voice)	*les voi***x** (the voices)
*le ne***z** (the nose)	*les ne***z** (the noses).

(For the explanation of this rule, see § 46.)

86. EXCEPTIONS.—(A) Nouns whose singular ends in *au* and *eu* take **x** in the plural—

*un bate***au** (a boat)	*des bate***aux** (boats)
*le châte***au** (the castle)	*les châte***aux** (the castles);

as well as the seven following nouns ending in *ou*:—

*le bij***ou** (the jewel)	*les bij***oux** (the jewels)
*un caill***ou** (a pebble)	*des caill***oux** (some pebbles)
*un ch***ou** (a cabbage)	*des ch***oux** (some cabbages)
*le gen***ou** (the knee)	*les gen***oux** (the knees)
*le hib***ou** (the owl)	*les hib***oux** (the owls)
*un jouj***ou** (a toy)	*des jouj***oux** (some toys)
*un p***ou** (a louse)	*des p***oux** (lice).

N.B.—All the other nouns ending in *ou* follow the general rule, and take *s* in the plural—

un clo*u* (a nail),	des clo*us* (nails)
un verro*u* (a bolt),	des verro*us* (bolts).

This irregularity is one of the remains of the old language. In the time of St. Louis spelling was not so precise as it is now, for although strict rules were fixed for all the letters which were pronounced, much freedom was exercised as regard such silent letters as *s* in the plural which is always silent: rose*s*, fleur*s*. This explains why, in the Middle Ages, we find that *s mute* spelt either *s* or *x*, in *nes* for ne*z*, *vois* or *voiz* for voi*x*, for instance. That licence has remained in the words *bijou*, *genou*, etc., which are still written *bijoux*, *genoux*, whilst the plural of *clou* and *verrou* is spelt *clous*, *verrous*. It is also because in the olden time the mute letters *z*, *x*, and *s* were equivalent, that such words as ne*s*, voi*x*, noi*x* do not take *s* in the plural, and remain unchanged just like the words ending in *s* in the singular, as *fils*, *héros*. See § 46.

87. (B) Most nouns ending in *al* make their plural by changing *al* into *aux* *—

*le chev***al** (the horse)	*les chev***aux** (the horses)
*un m***al** (an evil)	*des m***aux** (evils).

Seven substantives ending in *ail* follow the same rule, as—

*un b***ail** (a lease)	*des b***aux** (leases)
*le cor***ail** (coral)	*des cor***aux** (corals)
*l'ém***ail** (the enamel)	*des ém***aux** (enamels)
*un soupir***ail** (an air-hole)	*des soupir***aux** (air-holes)
*le trav***ail** (work)	*les trav***aux** (works)
*le vant***ail** (the leaf of a door)	*les vant***aux** (leaves of doors)
*un vitr***ail** (a stained-glass window)	*des vitr***aux** (stained-glass windows).

N.B.—The word *bestiaux* is used as the plural of *bétail* (cattle).

But all the other substantives ending in *ail* follow the general rule, as—

*un gouvern***ail** (a helm) *des gouvern***ails** (helms), etc.

At the birth of the French language—that is, in the time of Hugh Capet—*al* became *als* in the plural: un chev*al*, des chev*als*, un m*al*, des m*als*, but in the thirteenth century (about the time of St. Louis) *al* was softened, and became *au* (through a change explained in § 23): in the same way as the Old French words *al*tre, *al*be, p*al*me (from the Latin *al*ter, *al*ba, p*al*ma), were softened and written *au*tre (other), *au*be (dawn), p*au*me (palm),—so the plural form became *aus*: chev*aus*, chev*aus*; m*als*, m*aus*. For the change of *aus* into *aux*, see § 86.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS.—I. The following nouns have two plural forms, one regular, the other irregular. The irregular generally leaves to the noun the same meaning it has in the singular, whilst the regular gives it a peculiar signification.

IRREGULAR.

l'aïeul (the grandfather)	*les aïeux* (the ancestors)
le ciel (sky, heaven)	*les cieux* (the heavens)
l'œil (the eye)	*les yeux* (the eyes)
le travail (the work)	*les travaux* (the works).

* Such nouns as *bal* (ball, dancing party), *carnaval* (carnival), *chacal* (jackal), and *régal* (treat, feast) follow the general rule.

REGULAR.

les aïeuls (the grandfathers)
les ciels (skies in pictures, bed-testers)
les œils, in compound nouns, as *œils-de-bœuf* (oval windows)
des travails (a minister's reports, *or* brakes for shoeing vicious horses).

II. Some substantives, in French as in English, have no plural—that is to say, they are used only in the singular; such are—(*a*) Names of **metals**, as—

l'argent (silver)	*le fer* (iron)
le bronze (bronze)	*l'or* (gold)
le cuivre (brass)	*le platine* (platina)
l'étain (tin, pewter)	*le plomb* (lead)

le zinc (zinc), &c., &c.

N.B. However, some metals, when considered as works of art, or as productions of a country possessing some peculiar qualities, may be used in the plural, as: *des bronzes d'art* (bronzes, works of art), *les fers d'Angleterre* (English iron).

(*b*) Names of **aromatics**, as—*Le baume* (balsam), *l'encens* (incense), *la myrrhe* (myrrh), &c.

(*c*) Such **abstract nouns** as—

l'adolescence (adolescence)	*l'honneur* (honour)
la beauté (beauty)	*l'innocence* (innocence)
le bonheur (happiness)	*la jeunesse* (youth)
la charité (charity)	*la miséricorde* (mercy)
le courage (courage)	*l'obéissance* (obedience)
la douceur (gentleness)	*l'odorat* (sense of smelling)
le désespoir (despair)	*l'ouïe* (sense of hearing)
l'enfance (infancy)	*la paresse* (idleness)
l'esprit (mind)	*la reconnaissance* (gratitude)
la fierté (haughtiness)	*la santé* (health)
la gloire (glory)	*le silence* (silence)
la honte (shame)	*le superflu* (superfluity)

la vue (eyesight), &c., &c.

(*d*) **Adjectives of abstract nouns and infinitives** used **substantively**, as—

l'agréable (the agreeable)	*l'utile* (the useful)
le beau (the beautiful)	*le vrai* (the truth)

and

le boire (drinking) *le manger* (eating)
le dormir (sleeping) *le toucher* (feeling, touch).

&c., &c.

(*e*) Names of **Arts** and **Sciences**, as—

l'agriculture (agriculture) *la chimie* (chemistry)
l'astronomie (astronomy) *la peinture* (painting)
la botanique (botany) *la rhétorique* (rhetoric)
la sculpture (sculpture), &c., &c.
Except *les mathématiques* (mathematics).

(*f*) **Témoin** does not take the sign of the plural when it is placed at the beginning of a sentence, or in the locution *à témoin*—

Témoin les blessures qu'il a reçues (witness the wounds he has received);
Je vous prends tous *à témoin* (I call you all to witness).
N.B.—*Prendre à témoin* means properly *prendre pour témoin*.

III. (A) Some other substantives have no singular—that is to say, they are only used in the plural. The following, being of frequent occurrence, are the most important:—

Abois, *m.* (bay), *être aux abois* (to be at bay)
Aguets, *m.* (watch), *être aux aguets* (to be on the look-out)
Alentours, *m.* (neighbourhood, environs)
Ancêtres, *m.* (ancestors, forefathers). See § 83.
Annales, *f.* (annals)
Appas,* *m.* (attractions, charms)
Archives, *f.* (archives, records)
Armoiries, *f.* (arms, armorial bearings)
Assises, *f.* (assizes, sessions)
Broussailles, *f.* (bushes, brambles)
Catacombes, *f.* (catacombs)
Ciseaux,† *m.* (scissors); *les — de la Parque* (the scissors of the Fates)
Confins, *m.* (confines, borders, limits)
Décombres, *m.* (rubbish)

* *Appas* is properly the plural of *appât* (bait), the regular plural of which is *appâts* (baits, temptations).

† The singular *ciseau* means chisel.

Dépens, *m.* (expense, cost; costs [*law*])
Entrefaites, *f.* (used only in the adv. *loc. sur ces*), (meanwhile)
Environs, *m.* (neighbourhood, vicinity, environs)
Fastes, *m.* (annals, records, history)
Fiançailles, *f.* (betrothal)
Fonts (*baptismaux*), *m.* (font). *Tenir sur les* — (to stand godfather or godmother to)
Frais, *m.* (expense, cost; costs [*law*])
Funérailles, *f.* (funeral, funeral rites)
Lunettes,* *f.* (spectacles, glasses)
Matériaux, *m.* (materials)
Mathématiques, *f.* (mathematics)
Mœurs, *f.* (customs, way of life, morals). See § 88.
Obsèques, *f.* (obsequies, funeral)
Pincettes, *f.* (tongues, tweezers, pincers)
Pleurs, *m.* (tears, weeping, cries).
Ténèbres, *f.* (darkness, dark, night)
Vivres, *m.* (provisions, victuals).

B. Words taken from foreign languages do not take the mark of the plural, as—

un exequatur (exequatur), *des exequatur*
un fac-simile (facsimile), *des fac-simile*
un post-scriptum (postscriptum), *des post-scriptum*
un Te Deum (Te Deum = thanksgiving), *des Te Deum*
un veto (veto . . .), *des veto* (veto); *&c.*, *&c.*

EXCEPT some few which have become French by frequent use, such as—

un accessit (*proxime*=honourable mention),	*des accessits*
un album (album),	*des albums*
un examen (examination),	*des examens*
un opéra (opera),	*des opéras*
un pensum (an imposition, task),	*des pensums*
un spécimen (a specimen),	*des spécimens*; *&c.*

C. **Proper Nouns of persons** do not, contrary to the English, take the sign of the plural, as—

Les deux **Corneille** *sont nés à Rouen* (the two Corneilles were born at Rouen)

* The meaning of *lunette* subt. f sing., is telescope, spy-glass.

Les **Corneille,** *les* **Molière,** *les* **Racine** *ont illustré le siècle de Louis XIV.* (Corneille, Molière, and Racine have rendered illustrious the age of Louis XIV.)

EXCEPT (1) when they are common to great families or dynasties, as—

Les deux **Gracques,** *en flattant le peuple, commencèrent les divisions qui ne finirent qu'avec la République*—(Bossuet). The two Gracchi, by flattering the people, originated those quarrels which only ended with the Republic.

(2) when they are used as common nouns, as—

Un Auguste aisément peut faire des **Virgiles** (*i.e., des poëtes comme* Virgile). An emperor like August can easily produce poets like Virgil.

(3) when the name of an author is used to designate his works, as—

J'ai plusieurs **Virgiles** *dans ma bibliothèque.* (I have several copies of Virgil in my library.)

N.B.—**Proper names of countries** take the sign of the plural, as: *les deux* **Guinées** (Upper and Lower Guinea), *les deux* **Amériques** (North and South America).

Plural of Compound Nouns.

88. Preliminary observations. — (A) Compound nouns written **in one word**, as *portemanteau*, portmanteau (*lit.* that which *carries* the *cloak*), *contrevent* (*lit.* that shutter which protects *against* the *wind*), follow the rule for the formation of the plural of simple nouns: des *portemanteaux* (portmanteaus), des *contrevents* (shutters).

(B) When the compound nouns are written **in two words**, as *coffre-fort* (strong-box, safe), *porte-drapeau* (standard-bearer), *serre-tête* (head-band), the noun and adjective alone can take the sign of the plural; all the other words, either verb, adverb, or preposition remain invariable.

89. The rules for forming the plural of compound nouns are six in number:—

When a compound noun is formed—

1. **Of two nouns**, as—

un chat-tigre (a tiger-cat), *un chou-fleur* (a cauliflower).

Both nouns take the sign of the plural—

des *chats-tigres*, des *choux-fleurs*.

2. **Of two nouns joined by a preposition**, as—

un arc-en-ciel (a rainbow), *un chef-d'œuvre* (a masterpiece).

The first alone takes the sign of the plural—

des arcs-en-ciel, *des chefs-d'œuvre*.

When the preposition is understood, the rule must be observed; thus des *hôtels-Dieu* is the plural of un *hôtel-Dieu* (hospital), which stands for *hôtel* de *Dieu*.

EXCEPT—

un tête-à-tête (private interview),
un coq-à-l'âne (a cock and bull story),
un pied-à-terre (temporary lodgings),

which remain the same, with the exception of the article which, of course, must be in the plural: *des* tête-à-tête, &c.

3. **Of a noun and an adjective**, as—

une *basse-taille* (a bass voice), un *coffre-fort* (a safe).

Both take the sign of the plural—

des *basses-tailles*, des *coffres-forts*.

EXCEPT some expressions formed of Old French words, such as—

terre-plein (platform, terre-plein), from the old adjective *plein*, *plain* (flat, even);
chevau-léger (light-horseman), properly *cheval léger*.
blanc-seing (signature on a blank paper), from the Old French *seing*, for *signature*.

These nouns form their plural like the compounds written in one word—that is to say that the last word alone takes the plural—

des *terre-pleins*, des *chevau-légers*, des *blanc-seings*.

4. Of a noun and a verb, as—

un *passe-port* (a passport), un *tire-bouchon* (a corkscrew).

The noun alone takes the sign of the plural—

des *passe-ports*, des *tire-bouchons*.

But, of course, the nouns ending in *s*, *x*, or *z* in the singular, do not change in the plural, as—

un *porte-mors* (head-piece [of a bridle]), des *porte-mors ;*
un *porte-voix* (a speaking trumpet), des *porte-voix ;*
un *pince-nez* (double eye-glass), des *pince-nez.*

Except the compound nouns formed with the verb *garder*, such as—

un *garde*-chasse (a game-keeper),
un *garde*-manger (a larder, meat-safe),

in which *garde* takes *s* in the plural when it means *a keeper*, as—

un **garde**-*chasse*, des **gardes**-*chasse*.*

But *garde* remains invariable when it designates an instrument or object, as—

un **garde**-*manger*, des **garde**-*manger*.

5. Of a noun and a preposition, or **of a noun and an adverb,** as—

un *sous-officier* (a non-commissioned officer),
un *avant-coureur* (a precursor, harbinger).

The noun alone takes the sign of the plural, as—

des *sous-officiers*, des *avant-coureurs*.

6. Of invariable words (verb, preposition, adverb), as—

un *oüi-dire* (a hearsay), un *passe-partout* (a master-key).

* However, most Grammarians are of opinion that *garde* is not a substantive, but a verb in this word, and therefore should remain invariable. Some others give *des garde-chasses* as the plural of this compound noun.—TRANSLATORS.

Both words remain unchanged, the article alone taking the mark of the plural—

des *ouï-dire*, des *passe-partout*.

90. REMARKS.—In forming the plural of compound nouns one must first examine what is their exact meaning; thus we write "des *serre-tête*" (head-bands) without *s* after *tête*, because the band is fastened round *one head* only, and "un *couvre-pieds*" (a counterpane, quilt) because it covers *the feet*; again, "des *abat-jour*" (shades), because it shades *the light*; but "un *porte-clefs*" (a turnkey), because he turns *many keys*.

SECTION III.

FORMATION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

91. After having examined the rules according to which the gender and number of substantives are determined and formed, we must see *how* and *wherefrom* new substantives are created.

With the help of about 2000 substantives derived from the Latin, the French have formed 8000 new ones, which do not correspond to any Latin type, and to this number they still make additions almost every day.

92. New substantives are formed, as we have seen in § 88 and foll., by joining together, either:

1. **two nouns**: un *chat-tigre*,
2. **two nouns joined by a preposition**: *arc-en-ciel*,
3. **a noun and an adjective**: une *basse-taille*,
4. **a noun and a verb**: un *tire-bouchon*,
5. **a noun and a preposition**: un *sous-officier*,
6. **a verb and an adverb**: un *passe-partout*.

93. New substantives are formed also with the help of those *substantives*, *adjectives*, and *verbs* already existing in the French language.

1.—Substantives derived from Substantives already existing in French.

94. New substantives are created sometimes by adding to other substantives already existing a new termination, which gives them another meaning. Thus *cloch***er** (steeple, bell-tower) is derived from *cloche* (bell); *rat***ière** (rat-trap) from *rat* (rat); *lai***tage** (milk-food *or* diet) from *lait* (milk). These terminations, **er, ière, age,** are called **suffixes** (from the Latin *suffixus=affixed to or after*), and the operation by which a new termination is affixed to the simple word to give it a fresh meaning is termed *derivation*, because out of the old word a new one is formed.

95. Sometimes also new substantives are created by placing *before* substantives already existing a word called *prefix* (from the Latin *praefixus=affixed before*), which gives the substantive a new meaning. Thus from *lieutenant* (lieutenant) is formed with the prefix *sous* the word **sous-***lieutenant* (sub-lieutenant).

96. Therefore, from a simple word, as *boutique* (shop), two new words can be derived in French: (*a*) A **derivative**, with a new termination called **suffix** placed *after* the word, as *ier* in *boutiqu***ier** (shopkeeper). The part of the simple word which remains unaltered, and to which the suffix is added, is termed root *or* stem.

(*b*) A **compound**, with the help of a new word called **prefix**, which is placed *before* the simple word, as *arrière-boutique* (back-shop).

List of Prefixes.

97. The prefixes used in French to form new substantives are—

Après,	as in	une *après*-midi (an afternoon)
Avant,	„	un *avant*-coureur (a forerunner, precursor)
Arrière,	„	une *arrière*-boutique (back-shop)
Contre,	„	un *contre*-ordre (a counter-order)
Entre,	„	une *entre*-côte (a rib of beef)
Non,	„	un *non*-sens (a nonsense)
Sans,	„	un *sans*-façon (an off-handed manner)
Sous,	„	un *sous*-officer (a non-commissioned officer).

Besides these, there are some other prefixes taken from the Greek, such as *pro* (πρό), *épi* (ἐπί), hyper (ὑπέρ), as in *pro*drome (prodrome, forerunner; introduction), *épi*graphe (epigraph), *hyper*critique (hypercritical), but they are not admitted in popular French, and are only used by *savants*.

98. Moreover, the three particles, *bis*, *mi*, *vice*, are also used to form compound nouns—

Bis (twice), as *bis*aïeul (great-grandfather); *bis*cuit (biscuit, *lit.* twice baked)

Mi (half), as la *mi*-carême (mid-Lent); la *mi*-juillet (the middle of July); *mi*nuit (midnight)

Vice (instead of, in the place of), as *vice-roi* (viceroy), *vice-amiral* (vice-admiral).

Mi comes from the Latin *medius*, by changing the Latin *e* into *i*, as in *merci* (thanks), from *mercedem*, *venin* (venom), from *venenum*, *six* (six), from *sex*.—*Bis* is the Latin word, meaning *twice*.—*Vice* is also the Latin word, meaning *in the place of*, which gave in Old French the prefix *vi* found in *vi*comte (viscount), from *vice-comitem*.

II.—List of Suffixes.

99. Derivative substantives are formed in French by adding to the simple nouns *eleven* suffixes: *ade*, *age*, *ain*, *ard*, *at*, *é*, *ée*, *er* (*ier*), *erie*, *esse*, *iste*.

100. Ade expresses generally a collection of objects of the same kind, as—

une *balustr***ade** (a balustrade), *i.e.*, a collection of balusters, railings
une *barric***ade** (a barricade), „ of "barriques" (casks)
une *colonn***ade** (a colonnade), „ columns.

For the history and origin of this suffix, see § 131.

101. At denotes a title, a profession, as—

un *cardinal***at** (a cardinalship), from *cardinal* (cardinal)
un *général***at** (a generalship), „ *général* (general)
un *marquis***at** (a marquisate), „ *marquis* (marquis).

Formerly *é* was used instead of *at*, in the same sense, as—

un *comté* (an earldom, county), from *comte* (count, earl)
un *duché* (a dukedom), „ *duc* (duke)
un *évêché* (a bishopric), „ *évêque* (bishop).

The Romans used the suffix *atus* for the same purpose, as consul*atus* (consulate), from *consul*,—episcop*atus* (episcopacy), from *episcopus* (bishop). The suffix *atus* became *é* in popular French in a regular manner (comté, duché), through the ordinary change of *atus* into *é*, as in aim*é* (loved), from am*atus*, chant*é* (sung), from cant*atus*, gouvern*é* (governed), from guberna*tus*, etc. Towards the end of the Middle Ages the learned men and the clergy reintroduced into French this suffix *atus* under the modern form of *at*.

102. Age denotes usually—

(*a*) *Either* a collection of objects of the same kind, as—

*le branch*age (the branches), *i.e.*, collection of branches
*le feuill*age (the leaves), „ leaves
*l'herb*age (the herbs), „ herbs
*le plum*age (the plumes), „ plumes.

(*b*) *Or* a condition, a situation, as—

*l'apprentiss*age (apprenticeship), *i.e.*, situation of an apprentice
*l'esclav*age (slavery), „ condition of a slave
*le veuv*age (widowhood), „ „ a widow *or* a widower.

(*c*) *Or*, simply, the result of an action, as—

*le brigand*age (brigandage), *i.e.*, the result of the actions of the brigand
*le pèlerin*age (pilgrimage), *i.e.*, the result of the actions of the pilgrim.

Age is derived from the Latin suffix *aticum* contracted into *at'cum*, according to the invariable rule of the Latin accent (see § 51). Thus *umbraticum* has given by degrees *umbrat'cum*, *ombratge*, and lastly ombr*age* (shade, umbrage). In the same way vol*age* (flighty) is derived from vol*aticum* (that which flies).

103. Ain, aine, are applied to—

(*a*) Persons, as—

*un chapel***ain** (chaplain, incumbent), *i.e.*, who officiates in a chapel
*un châtel***ain** (lord of the manor), ,, who lives in a castle
*une châtel***aine** (lady of the manor) ,, ,,

(*b*) *Or* collective numerals, as—

*un quatr***ain** (quatrain), *i.e.*, a stanza of four lines
*une huit***aine** (about eight, a week), *i.e.*, a collection of eight
*une neuv***aine** (nine days' prayer [in the Roman Catholic Church])
*une douz***aine** (a dozen), *i.e.*, a collection of twelve
*une quinz***aine** (about fifteen, a fortnight), ,, fifteen
*une ving***taine** (a score), ,, twenty
*une trent***aine** (about thirty), ,, thirty
*une quarant***aine** (about forty), ,, forty

N.B. *Trentaine*, *quarantaine*, *cinquantaine*, *soixantaine*, and *centaine*, used absolutely with the definite feminine article, indicate age, as—

J'ai passé **la quarantaine** (I am more than forty years old; *lit.*, I have passed forty)
Peu d'hommes passent **la centaine** (few men live more than a hundred years).

Ain comes from the Latin *anus*, as in rom*ain* (Roman), from Rom*anus;* hum*ain* (human), from hum*anus;* *sain* (healthy), from *sanus;* m*ain* (hand), from m*anus*. In Latin, the suffix *anus* denoted more especially geographical names—Rom*anus*, Germ*anus*, etc.

104. Ard is found in such substantives as—

*un bill***ard** (billiards), from *une bille* (a ball)
*un bras***sard** (an arm-guard), ,, *le bras* (the arm)
*un can***ard** (a drake), ,, *la cane* (the duck)
*un cuiss***ard** (a cuissart), ,, *la cuisse* (the thigh)
*des épin***ards** (spinach), ,, *l'épine* (the thorn)
*un mouch***ard** (police-spy), ,, *une mouche* (a fly, in the sense of *sly blade*),

&c., &c.

And in the feminine form, in—

*la mout***arde** (mustard), from *le moût* (must) *
*une poul***arde** (a fat pullet), ,, *une poule* (a hen)
&c., &c.

This suffix, of German origin, was brought in by the Franks when they invaded Gaul in the fifth century.

105. **É** is found in *comt***é**, *duch***é**, *évêch***é**. (See § 101.)

106. **Ée** denotes the quantity contained in the simple or primitive noun, as—

*une assiett***ée** (a plateful), from *assiette* (plate)
*une bouch***ée** (a mouthful), ,, *bouche* (mouth)
*une gorg***ée** (a mouthful, *lit.* throat full), from *gorge* (throat)
*une plat***ée** (a dishful), ,, *plat* (dish)
*une pot***ée** (a potful), ,, *pot* (pot).

Ée has been added to the substantives in imitation of the suffix *ée* (see § 129), which forms nouns with the help of verbs, as *l'arrivée* (the arrival), from *arriver* (to arrive), *la veillée* (the watching), from *veiller* (to watch), etc.

107. **Er** and **ier** are used to form

(*a*) names of trees, as—

un cerisier (cherry-tree), from *cerise* (cherry)
un citronnier (lemon-tree), ,, *citron* (lemon)
un poirier (pear-tree), ,, *poire* (pear)
un pommier (apple-tree), ,, *pomme* (apple)
&c., &c.;

(*b*) names of professions and trades, as—

un boucher (a butcher), from *bouc* (he-goat†)
un chamelier (a camel-driver), ,, *chamel*, Old Fr. for *chameau* (camel)
un huissier‡ (an usher), ,, *huis*, Old Fr. for *porte* (door)

* Mustard is made of ground mustard-seed diluted in must or in vinegar.

† *Un boucher* means properly *one who kills bucks.* (*In the Mediæval Ages the "bouchers" were not allowed to sell any meat but goats' flesh.*)

‡ The O. Fr. *huis* exists still in the forensic expression, *audience à huis clos* (sitting, trial with closed doors, when the public is not admitted).

*un jardin***ier** (a gardener), from *jardin* (garden)
*un pot***ier** (a potter), „ *pot* (pot)
&c., &c.

(*c*) Lastly names of receptacles, as—

*un encr***ier** (an inkstand), from *encre* (ink)
*un gren***ier** (a granary), „ *grain* (corn)
*un sabl***ier** (sand-glass), „ *sable* (sand)
&c., &c.

NOTICE that **ier** becomes always **er** after **ch** or **g**, as—

*un arch***er** (a bowman), from *arc* (bow)—not *arch***ier**
*un porch***er** (a swineherd), „ *porc* (pig)—not *porch***ier**
*un roch***er** (a rock), „ *roc* (rock)—not *roch***ier**
*un vach***er** (a cow-keeper), „ *vache* (cow)—not *vach***ier**.

*un horlog***er** (a clock-maker), from *horloge* (clock)—not *horlog***ier**
*un messag***er** (a messenger), „ *message* (message)—not *messag***ier**
*un orang***er** (an orange-tree), „ *orange* (orange)—not *orang***ier**
*un passag***er** (a passenger), „ *passage* (passage)—not *passag***ier**.

ier comes from the Latin suffix *arium*, as in prem*ier* (first), from prim*arium*; gren*ier* (granary), from gran*arium*; pomm*ier* (apple-tree), from pom*arium*; etc.

108. Erie is used to form substantives:

(*a*) With substantives ending in *eur* (see § 133), as—

*une command***erie** (a commandery), from *commandeur* (commander)
*la flatt***erie** (flattery), „ *flatteur* (flatterer)
*la hâbl***erie** (boasting), „ *hâbleur* (braggart)
*la tromp***erie** (deceit), „ *trompeur* (deceiver).

(*b*) With nouns ending in *er* or *ier* (see § 107), as—

*une berg***erie** (sheep-fold), from *berger* (shepherd)
*une bouch***erie** (butcher's shop), „ *boucher* (butcher)
*la chancell***erie** (chancery), „ *chancelier* (chancellor)
*l'hôtell***erie** (hotel), „ *hôtelier* (hotel-keeper)
*la pâtiss***erie** (pastry), „ *pâtissier* (pastrycook).

By analogy this suffix has been added to substantives ending neither in **eur** nor in **ier**, as—

*l'ébéniste*rie (cabinet-making), from *ébéniste* (cabinet-maker)
*la lampiste*rie (lamp-making), ,, *lampiste* (lamp-maker).

Erie is in reality reduced to *ie* (as we see in *flatt*erie from *flatt*eur, or in *berg*erie from *berg*er), since the first syllable *er* (*flatt*-er-*ie*, *berg*-er-*ie*) belongs to the simple noun *flatt*-eur, *berg*-er. We have seen (§ 70) why *flatt*eur gives *flatt*erie, not *flatt*eurie, in the same way as *chass*eur gives *chasseresse*, not *chass*eur*esse*; and (§ 53) why we say *chevale*rie, *épice*rie, from *chevali*er, *épici*er, instead of *chevali*erie, *épici*erie.

This suffix *ie*, found in *baron*ie (barony), *félon*ie (felony), from *baron* (baron), *félon* (felon), is the Latin suffix *ia*, not accented in classical Latin [since it disappears in such words as *misère* (misery), from *miseria*, *audace* (audacity), from *audacia*, etc.], but accented at the time of the decline of the Empire, in imitation of the Greek suffix *ία* in *δημοκρατία* (democracy).

109. Esse is added to masculine nouns ending in *e mute* to form feminine ones (that final *e mute* being cut off), as—

âne (ass), *âne***sse** (she-ass)
comte (count), *comte***sse** (countess)
prince (prince), *princesse* (princess)
tigre (tiger), *tigresse* (tigress).

This suffix *issa* was used in Latin to form some feminine nouns; thus *sacerdot*issa (priestess) was derived from *sacerdotem* (priest), *prophet*issa (prophetess), from *prophetam* (prophet). This suffix *issa* became *esse* in French by changing the Latin *i* into *e*, as in m*e*sse (mass), from m*i*ssa, c*e*p (vine-plant), from c*i*ppus, ar*ê*te (fish-bone), from ar*i*sta, cr*ê*te (crest, comb, tuft), from cr*i*sta (see § 17). As for the termination *eresse*, see § 70.

110. Ier, see **er**, § 107.

111. Iste is applied only to persons to indicate their occupation or business, as—

*ébén***iste** (cabinet-maker, ebonist, he who works ebony)
*journal***iste** (journalist), from *journal* (newspaper)
*mod***iste** (milliner), ,, *modes* (millinery).

Iste comes from the Latin *ista*, borrowed by the Christian writers

from the Greek ἰστής, which has the same meaning; hence *psalm*ista (the one who sings psalms), *evangel*ista (he who propagates the Gospel), etc.

III.—List of Diminutives.

112. DIMINUTIVE SUFFIXES.—There is a particular class of suffixes which, indicating *diminution*, are used to form derivatives, whose meaning is less than that of the simple word. For this reason they are called *diminutive suffixes*. Such are, for instance, *illon* in *nég*r**illon**=*petit* nègre (little negro); *eau* in chev*reau*=*petite* chèvre (kid). *Négrillon* and *chevreau*, which lessen the meaning of the simple words *nègre* (negro) and *chèvre* (goat), are **diminutives.** The *diminutive suffixes* generally used in French to form new substantives are six in number: *aille, as, el* (eau, elle), *et* (*ette*, *elet*), *on* (ill*on*, er*on*), *ot*.

113. Aille lessens the signification of the simple word, and gives to it, at the same time, a meaning of depreciation and contempt, as—

la ferr-**aille** (old iron), from *fer* (iron)
la trip-**aille** (garbage), „ *tripe* (tripe)
la valet-**aille** (flunkeys), „ *valet* (valet, footman)
&c., &c.

Aille is derived from *acula*, which in Latin had a diminutive meaning. *Acula*, contracted into *ac'la* conformably to the rule of the Latin accent (see § 51), has given *...aille*, as m*acula* gave m*aille* (mesh), gubernaculum-*gouvern*ail (helm).

114. As, asse lower the meaning of the simple noun, as—

*un coutel***as** (a cutlass), from *coutel*, old form of *couteau* (knife)
*une paill***asse** (a straw-mattress), „ *paille* (straw)
*la paper***asse** (waste paper), „ *papier* (paper)
*un plâtr***as** (rubbish of plaster), „ *plâtre* (plaster)
&c., &c.

As comes from *aceus*, which, in some Latin words, has a disparaging meaning.

115. Eau (*fem.* **elle**) is found (for the masculine) in:

*un balein***eau** (a young whale), from *baleine* (whale)
*un chevr***eau** (a kid), „ *chèvre* (goat)
*un dindonn***eau** (a young turkey), „ *dindon* (turkey)
*un lionc***eau** (a lion's cub), „ *lion* (lion);

And for the feminine in:

*une prun***elle** (a sloe), „ *prune* (plum)
*une rond***elle** (a roundel), „ *rond* (circle).

A new diminutive *et* (see § 116) is often inserted between the simple noun and the termination *eau*, thus twice lessening the primitive meaning of the noun: un jeune *loup* (a young wolf), for instance, will not be *un louv-***eau**, but *un louv-***et**-*eau*.

As *bel* (fine) is an older form than *beau*, so this suffix *eau* was originally *el*, from which comes the fem. *elle*; and this old form remains often by the side of the recent one in derived words; thus—

*le batel***ier** (the boatman), from O.F. *batel* for *bateau* (boat)
*le châtel***ain** (the lord of the manor), „ *châtel* „ *château* (castle)
*l'oisel***eur** (bird-catcher), „ *oisel* „ *oiseau* (bird).

In the same way—

	Was in O.F.	Which remains in the derivative
*un agn***eau** (a lamb)	*agn***el**,	*agnel***et** (lambkin)
*un ann***eau** (a ring)	*ann***el**,	*annel***et** (ringlet)
*un bat***eau** (a boat)	*bat***el**,	*batel***et** (small boat)
*un carr***eau** (a paving-tile)	*carr***el**,	*carrel***age** (tile-flooring)
*le cerv***eau** (the brains)	*cerv***el**,	*cervel***et** (cerebellum)
*un cham***eau** (a camel)	*cham***el**,	*chamel***ier** (camel-driver)
*un chap***eau** (a hat)	*chap***el**,	*chapel***ier** (hatter)
*un châte***au** (a castle)	*châte***l**,	*châtel***ain** (lord of a manor)
*un cis***eau** (a chisel)	*cis***el**,	*cisel***eur** (carver)
*un clav***eau** (rot [in sheep])	*clav***el**,	*clavel***ée** (rot)
*un corb***eau** { (corbel [in architecture]) }	*corb***el**,	en*corbel***lement** (corbelling)
*un cord***eau** (a line)	*cord***el**,	*cordel***er** (to twist)
*un cout***eau** (a knife)	*cout***el**,	*coutel***ier** (cutler)
un créneau (a battlement)	*créne***l**,	*créne***ler** (to embattle)
un écheveau (a skein)	*échevel*,	*échevel***er** (to dishevel)
*un grum***eau** (a clot)	*grum***el**,	*grumel***er** (to clot)

	Was in O. F.	Which remains in the derivative
*un jum*eau (a twin, *m.*)	*jum*el,	*jumel*le (twin, *f.*)
*un mant*eau (a cloak)	*mant*el,	*mantel*et (small mantle)
*un mart*eau (a hammer)	*mart*el,	*martel*er (to hammer)
*un monc*eau (a heap)	*monc*el,	a*moncel*er (to heap)
*le mus*eau (the muzzle)	*mus*el,	*musel*er (to muzzle)
*le niv*eau (the level)	*niv*el,	*nivel*er (to level)
*la nouv*eau (the new thing)	*nouv*el,	*nouvel*le (news)
*un ois*eau (a bird)	*ois*el,	*oisel*eur (bird-catcher)
*la p*eau (the skin)	*p*el,	*pel*er (to peel)
*le pomm*eau (the pommel)	*pomm*el,	*pommel*é (mottled)
*un rond*eau (a rondo)	*rond*el,	*rondel*et (roundish)
*un ruiss*eau (a stream)	*ruiss*el,	*ruissel*et (rivulet)
*un sc*eau (a seal)	*sc*el,	*scel*ler (to seal)
*un tonn*eau (a cask)	*tonn*el,	*tonnel*ier (cooper)
*un v*eau (a calf)	*v*el,	*vêler* (to calve).

This diminutive *eau*, formerly *el*, comes from *ellus*, which in Latin had also a diminutive meaning; thus were formed:

agn-*ellus* (lambkin), from *agnus* (lamb)
auc-*ellus* (little bird), ,, *avis* (bird)
porc-*ellus* (little pig), ,, *porcus* (pig), etc.

116. Et (for the masculine), and **ette** (for the feminine), indicate a lessening, but do not give the new substantive any meaning of depreciation or contempt; thus, for the masculine—

*un coch*et (a young cock) from *coq* (cock)
*un jardin*et (a little garden) ,, *jardin* (garden)
*un livr*et (a memorandum-book) ,, *livre* (book)
*un rou*et (a spinning-wheel) ,, *roue* (wheel)
*un sach*et (a satchel) ,, *sac* (sack),

And for the feminine—

*une chansonn*ette (little song, ditty), from *chanson* (song)
*une fill*ette (a little girl), ,, *fille* (girl)
*une maisonn*ette (small house, cottage), ,, *maison* (house).

If a still weaker expression is required, the diminutive *el* (O. Fr. for *eau*; see § 115) is inserted between the primitive noun and the diminutive suffix *et*, thus—

bande (band) has given *band*-el-*ette* (bandlet)—not *band*-ette
goutte (drop) ,, *goutt*-el-*ette* (little drop)—not *goutt*-ette
tarte (tart) ,, *tart*-el-*ette* (tartlet)—not *tart*-ette.

The origin of *et*, *ette* is unknown.

117. On gives rise to a great number of diminutives—

un ânon (a young donkey) for *petit âne* (small donkey)
un chaton (a kitten) ,, *petit chat* (little cat)
un fleuron (a jewel, gem) ,, *petite fleur* (small flower)
un jambon (a ham) ,, *petite jambe* (little leg)
un ourson (a bear's cub) ,, *petit ours* (little bear)
un raton (a small rat) ,, *petit rat* (small rat).

But in most cases **on** is accompanied by another diminutive, which is either **ill**, as in—

un barbillon (a little barbel) for *petite barbe* (small gills)
un carpillon (a young carp) ,, *petite carpe* (little carp)
un cotillon (a little petticoat) ,, *petite cotte* (small petticoat)
un croisillon (a cross-bar) ,, *petite croix* (little cross)
un postillon (a postilion, post-boy), from *poste* (post-horses).

Or **er**, as in—

un bûcheron (a woodman), from *bûche* (log of wood)
un chaperon (a hood), ,, *chape* (cope)
un forgeron (a blacksmith), ,, *forge* (forge)
un moucheron (a gnat, small fly), ,, *mouche* (fly)
un puceron (a plant-louse), ,, *puce* (flea)
un quarteron (a quarter of a hundred) ,, *quart* (quarter)
un vigneron (a vine-dresser), ,, *vigne* (vine).

The diminutive *...on* comes from the Latin termination *...onem*, which, however, had no diminutive meaning among the Romans. This change of *onem* into *on* is also found in *lion* (lion), from *leonem*, *faucon* (falcon, hawk), from *falconem*, *savon* (soap), from *saponem*, etc. . . .

Ill in *ill*-on represents the Latin diminutive *illus* (*illa*) found in *codic*-illus (*properly* little writing-book), from *codicem* (book, manuscript), *angu*illa (*properly* small serpent), from *anguis* (serpent).

Er-on is composed of *on*, and of the suffix *er* (see § 107).

118. Ot, for the masculine (or **otte**, for the feminine), is found in—

*un angel***ot** (an angel-fish),	from	*ange* (angel)
*un ball***ot** (a bale),	,,	*balle* (bale)
*le goul***ot** (the neck [of a bottle]),	,,	*gueule* (mouth [of animals])
*une men***otte** (a handcuff),	,,	*main* (hand), *etc.*, *etc.*

The origin of *ot* is unknown.

2. Substantives derived from Adjectives.

119. New substantives are formed by adding to adjectives the four following suffixes: **esse, ise, ie, té.** All these nouns, thus derived from adjectives, are feminine—

*la faibl***esse** (weakness),	from	*faible* (weak)
*la sott***ise** (foolishness),	,,	*sotte*, *f.* of *sot* (foolish)
*la malad***ie** (illness),	,,	*malade* (ill)
*la pauvr***eté** (poverty),	,,	*pauvre* (poor).

In Latin also, nouns derived from adjectives are always feminine, as *just*itia (justice), from *justus* (just),—*ver*itas (truth), from *verus* (true),—*grat*itudo (gratitude), from *gratus* (grateful).

120. Esse is found in—

*la fin***esse** (cunning),	from	*fin* (cunning)
*la hardi***esse** (boldness),	,,	*hardi* (bold)
*une larg***esse** (a gratuity)	,,	*large* (liberal)
*la petit***esse** (smallness),	,,	*petit* (small)
*la vieill***esse** (old age),	,,	*vieil* for *vieux* (old).

Esse is derived from *itia*, which in Latin had the same meaning: trist*esse* (sadness, from trist*itia*),—just*esse* (justness, from just*itia*),—moll*esse* (indolence, from moll*itia*),—par*esse* (idleness, from pigr*itia*). *Ise* is another form of *itia*, as in bêt*ise* (stupidity), from *bête* (beast, used as an adjective, meaning *stupid*).

121. Ise has formed—

*la bêt***ise** (stupidity), from *bête* (stupid)
*la franch***ise** (frankness), „ *franche, f.* of *franc* (frank)
*la friand***ise** (daintiness), „ *friand* (dainty)
*la sott***ise** (foolishness), „ *sotte, f.* of *sot* (foolish).

For the origin of *ise*, see § 120.

122. Ie is found in—

*félon***ie** (felony), from *félon* (felon)
*ladre***rie** (stinginess), „ *ladre* (stingy)
*malad***ie** (illness), „ *malade* (ill).

For the origin of *ie*, see § 108.

123. Té appears in—

*fermet***é** (firmness), from *ferme* (firm)
*honnêtet***é** (honesty), „ *honnête* (honest)
*pauvret***é** (poverty), „ *pauvre* (poor), *etc., etc.*

Té comes from the termination *tatem*, which, in Latin, was used to form substatives with the help of adjectives, as vér*ité* (truth), from veri*tatem*, from *verus*;—volon*té* (will), from volun*tatem*, from *volens*;—mortali*té* (mortality), from mortali*tatem*, from *mortalis*.

These four suffixes have the same meaning, and denote the quality or condition expressed by the adjective. Thus—

la fermeté is the quality of the one who is firm;
l'honnêteté „ „ „ honest;
la pauvreté is the condition of the one who is poor.

3. Substantives derived from Verbs.

124. New substantives are formed from the verbs in two different ways, either (1) by using the *tenses* of the verb, as *le tranchant* (the edge), from *tranchant* (cutting), present participle of *trancher* (to cut); or (2) by adding to the root of the verb various terminations or suffixes, such as *ade*, in *une promen***ade** (a walk), from *se promen***er** (to walk); or *eur*, in *un tromp***eur** (a deceiver), from *tromp***er** (to deceive).

I.—Substantives derived from the tenses of the Verb.

125. The tenses of the verb which are used to form French substantives are three in number—the **infinitive**, the **present participle**, and the **past participle**.

126. *Masculine* substantives are formed from the *present infinitive*, as—

le manger (eating)	which is the infinitive of	*manger* (to eat)
le boire (drinking)	,, ,,	*boire* (to drink)
le pouvoir (power)	,, ,,	*pouvoir* (to be able)
le déjeuner (the breakfast)	,, ,,	*déjeuner* (to breakfast)
le dîner (the dinner)	,, ,,	*dîner* (to dine)
le goûter (the lunch)	,, ,,	*goûter* (to lunch ; *lit.* to taste)
le souper (the supper)	,, ,,	*souper* (to sup)
le vivre (living)	,, ,,	*vivre* (to live)
les vivres (provisions, victuals)	,, ,,	*vivre* (to live)
le sourire (the smile)	,, ,,	*sourire* (to smile)
le souvenir (remembrance)	,, ,,	*se souvenir* (to remember).

Even, it is often the case that the only remains of the Old French verb in Modern French is its Infinitive used as a substantive; thus *le loisir* (leisure), *le plaisir* (pleasure), *le loyer* (rent), *l'avenir* (future), are the only remnants of the Old French verbs *loisir* (to have time, from *licere*), *plaisir* (to please, from *placere*), *loyer* (to let, from *locare*), *avenir* (to happen, from *advenire*).

127. New substantives are also formed from the present **infinitive of the first conjugation only**, by cutting off the termination **er**, thus—

un appel (a call, appeal)	comes from	*appeler* (to call)
un début (an outset)	,,	*débuter* (to begin)
un égout (a sewer)	,,	*égoutter* (to drain)
le galop (gallop)	,,	*galoper* (to gallop)
un repli (a fold)	,,	*replier* (to fold back),

the derivatives being shorter than the primitive nouns. Great care must be taken not to mistake these nouns derived from the verb for those which, on the contrary, have produced verbs, such as *une fête* (a feast), from which comes *fêter* (to feast).

These *verbal substantives*, as they are called, have been derived from the verb in imitation of the post-classical Latin, which formed, for instance, *proba* (proof), from *probare* (to prove), or *lucta* (struggle), from *luctari* (to struggle).

In French, the first conjugation alone supplies these substantives. Those which come from other conjugations are quite isolated cases, such are *ébat* (sport), from *s'ébattre* (to sport),—*rabat* (bands), from *rabattre* (to turn down), *combat* (fight), from *combattre* (to fight),—*accueil* (greeting), from *accueillir* (to greet),—*maintien* (maintenance), from *maintenir* (to maintain).

Repaire (den, lair) is the verbal substantive of the Old French verb *repairer* (to return home).

128. New substantives are also derived from the **present participle**, as—

un servant (a lay-brother),	from the pres. part. of	*servir*	(to serve)
le tranchant (the edge),	,,	,,	*trancher* (to cut)
un vivant (a person alive),	,,	,,	*vivre* (to live).

These substantives have been formed in imitation of the Latin, where *amantem* (lover) was derived from *amantem* (loving), present participle of *amare*. In the same way, the only remains of the Old French verbs *amer* (to love), *mécroire* (for *mal croire*=to believe in false gods, to worship idols) are their present participles *amant*, *mécréant*, which have become substantives: *un amant* (a lover), *un mécréant* (an infidel).

129. Lastly, new masculine substantives are derived from the **past participle**, as—

un dû (a due),	from the past part. of	*devoir*	(to owe)
un fait (a fact),	,,	,,	*faire* (to do)
un reçu (a receipt),	,,	,,	*recevoir* (to receive)
un réduit (small habitation),	,,	,,	*réduire* (to confine).

But especially feminine ones, as—

une battue (a beat),	from the past part. of		*battre* (to beat)
une crue (an increase),	,,	,,	*croître* to increase)
une entrée (an entrance),	,,	,,	*entrer* (to enter)
une revue (a review),	,,	,,	*revoir* (to look over)
une tenue (behaviour),	,,	,,	*se tenir* (to behave)
une tranchée (a trench),	,,	,,	*trancher* (to cut)
une volée (a flight),	,,	,,	*voler* (to fly)
une vue (a view),	,,	,,	*voir* (to see).

There are, in French, several hundreds of substantives formed in this manner.

In Latin, substantives were formed in the same manner from past participles: *fossa* (ditch), from *fossa* (dug), past participle of *fodere* (to dig).—The verb has often disappeared in Modern French, and the past participle has remained in the form of a substantive; thus the Old French verb *issir* (to go out, from *exire*) has remained in *issu*, hence *l'issue* (the issue, egress).

II.—Substances formed from the Verb with the help of suffixes.

130. New French substantives are formed by adding to the root of the verb various endings or suffixes which change the meaning of that verb, thus—

From *abreuver* (to give to drink) comes *abreuvoir* (trough)
,, *éclairer* (to lighten) ,, *éclaireur* (scout), *etc.*

These suffixes are fourteen in number: *ade*, *ance*, *eur* (isseur, eresse), *euse* (isseuse), *is*, *ment*, *oir*, *on*, *aison* (*ison*), *ure*.

(*a*) *Four* of them (*ade*, *ance*, *ment*, *ison* (aison), denote the action expressed by the verb, thus—

the action of	*consentir* (to consent)	is called	*le consente***ment** (consent)
,,	*glisser* (to slide)	,,	*la gliss***ade** (slide)
,,	*guérir* (to heal)	,,	*la guér***ison** (healing)
,,	*lier* (to connect)	,,	*la li***aison** (the connection)
,,	*surveiller* (to superintend)	,,	*la surveill***ance** (the superintendence).

(*b*) *Three* (*is*, *ure*, *on*) indicate the result of the action ex-

pressed by the verb; thus the result obtained by hashing (*hachant*) is called *le hachis* (the hash); by diving (*plongeant*), *le plongeon* (the ducking); by wounding (*blessant*), *la blessure* (the wound).

(*c*) Lastly, *two* (*eur* and *oir*) denote—the former, the one who accomplishes the action, as—

*dans***eur** (dancer), *i.e.*, the one who dances,
*vol***eur** (thief), „ „ commits a theft;

and the latter, the place where the action takes place; thus the place where people sleep (*où l'on dort*) is called *le dortoir* (the dormitory); where people speak (*où l'on parle*), *le parloir* (parlour); etc., etc.

131. Ade is found in—

*une embrass***ade** (an embrace),	*i.e.*,	action of	embracing (*embrass***er**)
*une fusill***ade** (shooting),	„	„	shooting (*fusill***er**)
*une gliss***ade** (a slide),	„	„	sliding (*gliss***er**)
*une promen***ade** (a walk),	„	„	walking (*se promen***er**)
*une ru***ade** (a kick [of a horse])	„	„	kicking (*ru***er**)
*une tir***ade** (tirade, long speech),	„	„	drawing (*tir***er**).

This suffix came from Italy, and was introduced in the sixteenth century (see § 10). It represents the Italian termination *ata*, which is the Latin past participle *ata*; thus from the Italian words *cavalc*ata (riding, cavalcade), *gamb*ata (leap), have been formed *cavalc*ade (cavalcade), *gamb*ade (gambol, caper). Although unknown in Old French, this suffix rapidly became as common as the other suffixes.

The Latin suffix *ata* having already given *ée* in French (am*ata*, aim*ée* [loved], as we have seen in § 106), and having come back again, a thousand years after, under the form *ade*, through Italian, it follows that such words as tir*ée* and tir*ade* (tirade, long speech) are in reality the same word.

132. Ance is the suffix which takes the place of the termination of the present participle (**ant**) in order to form substantives; thus—

From *alli***ant** (allying)	comes	*alli***ance** (alliance)
„ *croiss***ant** (growing)	„	*croiss***ance** (growth)
„ *croy***ant** (believing)	„	*croy***ance** (belief)

From *nais***ant** (being born)	comes	*nais***ance** (birth)
,, *obéiss***ant** (obeying)	,,	*obéiss***ance** (obedience)
,, *surveill***ant** (superintending),	,,	*surveill***ance** (superintendence)
,, *veng***eant** (avenging)	,,	*veng***eance** (revenge)

In Latin, substantives were derived from present participles: *ignor*antia, from *ignor*antem, present participle of *ignorare*,—con*stantia*, from const*antem*, present participle of *constare*.

This suffix *antia*, having become regularly *ance* in French (ignor*ance* [ignorance]. const*ance* [constancy]). French substantives were formed, in a like manner, from the present participle by the means of the termination *ance*.

133. Eur (*isseur*), is only applied to men, and always denotes the doer of the action expressed by the verb—

*le chant***eur** (the singer),	*i.e.*,	the one who	sings (*chante*)
*le dans***eur** (the dancer),	,,	,,	dances (*danse*)
*le gouvern***eur** (the governor),	,,	,,	governs(*gouverne*)
*le march***eur** (the walker),	,,	,,	walks (*walks*),
etc., etc.			

For all conjugations, **eur** is simply added to the root of the verb, as—

*un cour***eur** (a runner),	from	*cour***ir** (to run)
*un jongl***eur** (a juggler),	,,	*jongl***er** (to juggle)
*un recev***eur** (a receiver),	,,	*recev***oir** (to receive)
*un vend***eur** (a seller),	,,	*vend***re** (to sell).

EXCEPT for the verbs ending in **ir**, like *finir* (which does not make *fin***ais**, in the imperfect of the indicative, but *fin*-**iss**-*ais*), in which case **iss** is inserted between the root and the suffix **eur**, as—

*un fin***isseur** (a finisher),	from	*fin***ir** (to finish)
*un guér***isseur** (a curer),	,,	*guér***ir** (to cure)
*un pol***isseur** (a polisher),	,,	*pol***ir** (to polish).

N.B.—All these substantives are of the masculine gender.

The Romans, likewise, used the suffix *tor* (or *sor*) to denote the one who performs the action: *pisca***tor** (fisherman), from *piscare* (to fish), —*salva***tor** (saviour), from *salvare* (to save); etc. These suffixes

became regularly the French suffix *eur* (pêch*eur*, from piscat*orem*; sauv*eur*, from salvat*orem*), which has been used to form new substantives from the root of verbs.

134. Euse, (*is*seuse), eresse, ice. These suffixes denote feminine substantives, as—

*une chant*euse (a lady singer) *une dans*euse (a dancing lady),
*une enchant*eresse (an enchantress), *etc.*
See §§ 70, 109.

This suffix *euse* dates from the fourteenth century. Originally the real feminine of words ending in *eur* was *eresse*, as *pêch*eur (sinner), *pêch*eresse; — *veng*eur (avenger), *veng*eresse; — *chass*eur (hunter), chass*eresse*; etc. (See §§ 70 and 109.)

Later on *euse* took its place, but it has remained in five or six words; and, whilst the feminine of *chant*eur (singer) is *chant*euse, the old form has been kept in enchant*eresse*, feminine of enchant*eur* (enchanter).

The suffix *er-esse* is composed of *eur* (for the change of *eur* into *er*, see § 53), to which has been added the feminine suffix *esse* (see § 109).

Euse is copied from the Latin feminine *...osa*, in the same manner as *...orem* became *eur*: amour*euse* (enamoured), from amor*osa*; épin*euse* (thorny) from spin*osa*.

There was, besides, another form in *trix* to mark the feminine in Latin, from which came the French termination *trice*, in the *learned* words (see § 10): *aacusa*trice (accuser), from *aecusa*tricem; *impéra*trice (empress), from *imperatricem*. This suffix has been used in *bienfaitrice* (benefactress), feminine of *bienfait*eur (benefactor), etc.

135. Is denotes the result of the action expressed by the verb, as *le hâch*is (properly that which has been hashed *(hacher)*—

*un abat*is (pulling down),	from *abatt*re (to pull down)
*le cliquet*is (the clicking),	„ *cliquet*er (to click)
*un coul*is (gravy soup),	„ *coul*er (to flow)
*un gâch*is (a mess),	„ *gâch*er (to make a mess of)
*un lev*is [*pont*] (a drawbridge),	„ *lev*er (to pull up)
*un log*is (a lodging),	„ *log*er (to lodge).

For the history of this suffix, which comes from a Latin type *...aticius*, see Brachet's *Dictionnaire étymologique*.

136. Ment indicates the result of the action expressed by the verb, and is joined to the root of the verb by euphonic *e*, as—

abatt-**e**-*ment* (dejection), from *abatt***re** (to pull down)
consent-**e**-*ment* (consent), ,, *consent***ir** (to consent)
hurl-**e**-*ment* (howling), ,, *hurl***er** (to howl)
vêt-**e**-*ment* (clothing), ,, *vêt***ir** (to clothe).

N.B.—The verbs (see §§ 133 and 134) ending in **ir** and **re** require the insertion of **iss** or **ss** between the root and the termination. Thus *rug***ir** (to roar) and *accroît***re** (to increase), their imperfect being *rug*-**iss**-*ais*, *accroi***ss***ais*, give the derivatives *rug*-**iss**-*ement* (roaring), *accroi*-**ss**-*ement* (increase), whilst the derivatives of *consent***ir** (to consent), and *rend***re** (to render, produce), whose imperfect is *consent***ais** and *rend***ais**, are *consent***ement** (consent) and *rend***ement** (produce).

Ment comes from the Latin ...*mentum*, which has the same meaning, as in *vest*i**men**tum (vestment), from the infinitive *vest*ire (to clothe), etc....

137. Oir (**oire**) indicate either (*a*) the place where is accomplished the action expressed by the verb, as—

*un compt***oir** (a counting-house), where one counts (*compte*)
*un parl***oir** (a parlour), ,, speaks (*parle*)
*un trott***oir** (a footpath), ,, walks, trots (*trotte*);

or (*b*) the instrument with which the action is accomplished, as—

*un batt***oir** (a beater), used for beating (*battre*)
*une écum***oire** (a skimmer), ,, skimming (*écumer*)
*une mâch***oire** (a jaw), ,, chewing (*mâcher*)
*une nage***oire** (a fin), ,, swimming (*nager*)
*un ras***oir** (a razor), ,, shaving (*raser*).

As for the verbs ending in **ir** (see § 133) **iss** must be inserted between the root and the suffix **oir**, as—

*un pol***iss***oir* (a polisher), from *pol***ir** (to polish)
*une rôt***iss***oire* (a roaster, Dutch oven), ,, *rôt***ir** (to roast)

because the imperfect of these verbs is *pol***iss***ais*, *rôt***iss***ais*.

The Romans used the suffix *orium* in the same way: *dormit*orium (the place where one sleeps=dormitory),—*purgat*orium (the place where souls are purified of sins [according to the Roman Catholic Church]=purgatory). *Orium* became regularly *oir*, and *oria*, *oire*, as in gl*oire* (glory), from gl*oria*, hist*oire* (history), from hist*oria*.

138. Ison, aison denote the action expressed by the verb, as—

*la guér*ison (the cure), from *guér*ir (to cure)
*la li*aison (the connection), ,, *lier* (to connect);

but it is to be noticed that **ison** is used for the derivatives of verbs ending in **ir** only, and that the derivatives of all other verbs end in **aison**, as—

*une démange*aison (itching), from *démang*er (to itch)
*la flott*aison (the water-line), ,, *flott*er (to float)
*la pend*aison (hanging), ,, *pend*re (to hang), *etc.*, *etc.*

In the same way, the action of the verb was expressed, in Latin, by the suffix *tionem*: *compara*-tionem (action of comparing, from *comparare*, to compare),—*ven*-ationem (action of hunting, from *venari*, to hunt). This termination *ationem* became regularly *aison* in French, and was used as a suffix: *compar*aison (comparison), *ven*aison (venison).

139. On forms substantives with the help of the verbs of the first conjugation, as—

*un jur*on (an oath), from *jur*er (to swear)
*un plonge*on (a ducking), ,, *plong*er (to dive), *etc.*

For the history and origin of the suffix *on*, see § 117.

140. Ure indicates the result of the action expressed by the verb, as—

*une all*ure (a gait), from *all*er (to go)
*une bless*ure (a wound), ,, *bless*er (to wound)
*une par*ure (a set of gems), ,, *par*er (to adorn)
*une serr*ure (a lock), ,, *serr*er (to lock up).

For the verbs ending in **ir** (see § 133), **iss** is inserted between the root and the suffix **ure**, as—

une bouff-**iss**-*ure* (a swelling), from *bouff***ir** (to swell out)
la brun-**iss**-*ure* (burnishing), „ *brun***ir** (to burnish)
une meurtr-**iss**-*ure* (a bruise), „ *meurtr***ir** (to bruise)
la mois-**iss**-*ure* (mouldiness), „ *mois***ir** (to mould),

because the imperfect of these verbs is respectively *bouff*-**iss**-*ais*, *brun*-**iss**-*ais*, *meurtr*-**iss**-*ais*, and *mois*-**iss**-*ais*.

The suffix *t-ura* was used, in Latin, for the same purpose : *cult*-ura (culture), *pict*-ura (picture), from *cult*um, *pict*um, past participles of *colere* (to cultivate) and *pingere* (to paint a picture).

CHAPTER II.

OF THE ARTICLE.

141. When we have called a certain animal *cheval* (horse), it still remains to point out which horse we mean; for that purpose a word called **article** is placed before the noun. When placed before a *determinate object* it is named **definite article** (as **le cheval** *de mon père est noir* = my father's horse is black), and **indefinite article** when applied to an *indeterminate object* (as **un cheval** *est toujours un animal utile* = a horse is always a useful animal).

The article singling out the horse from many others is, in reality, a demonstrative adjective. The Latin demonstrative pronoun has become an article in French. See § 143.

SECTION I.

DEFINITE ARTICLE.

142. The definite article has both genders and numbers:

SINGULAR.

le (for the masc.), **le** père(the father)
la (for the fem.), **la** mère (the mother).

PLURAL.

les (for both genders) { **les** pères (the fathers)
les mères (the mothers).

143. It agrees in gender and in number with the substantive, as—

le cheval (subst. masc. sing.), the horse	**les** hommes (subst. masc. pl.), the men
la tour (subst. fem. sing.), the tower	**les** femmes (subst. fem. pl.), the women.

There was no article in classical Latin, and this real imperfection rendered it often difficult to understand thoroughly the meaning of certain expressions. Accordingly, towards the end of the Roman Empire, the common people, in order to make themselves clearly understood, began to join to the substantives the demonstrative pronoun **ille**, where we now use the article *le, la, les=the*. For instance, they said—

illa ecclesia	=*l'*église	=*the* church,	properly	=*this* church
ille rex	=*le* roi	=*the* king,	,,	=*this* king
illa corona	=*la* couronne	=*the* crown,	,,	=*this* crown.

In several *patois* or dialects the French demonstrative pronoun is used instead of the article: thus, the peasants of Picardy do not say "*le* curé" (the parish-priest), "*le* maréchal" (the shoeing-smith), but *ch' curé, ch' marichau*, properly *ce* (this) *curé, ce* (this) maréchal, using the demonstrative pronoun as an article in the same manner as those who spoke the vulgar Latin.

Illum became *illom* in Merovingian Latin, then *illo*, and gave the Old French *lo*, which in the eleventh century was softened into *le*, just as *jo* became *je* (I). In the same manner *la* comes from *illam*. *Illos* first gave the Old French *los*, which in the tenth century was softened into *les*.

144. The definite article may be either **elided** or **contracted**.

145. Elision. When *le* or *la* comes before a substantive beginning with a vowel or *h* mute, the vowel (*e* or *a*) is cut off and replaced by an apostrophe (see §§ 47 and 60). Thus—

*le-a*mour (the love)	must be written	*l'*amour
*la-e*nvie (the envy)	,,	*l'*envie
*le-h*onneur (the honour)	,,	*l'*honneur.

This suppression of the vowel is called **elision.**

The word *élision* (elision) is derived from the Latin acc. *elisionem*, which means "a striking out *or* forcing out."

NOTE.—No elision takes place before the following words:—*oui*=yes; *huit*=eight; *huitième*=eighth; *huitaine*=eight days, a week; *onze*=eleven; *onzième*=eleventh; as—

le oui et le non	=yes and no
le *h*uit janvier	=the eighth of January
je suis *le* *h*uitième	=I am the eighth
dans *la* *h*uitaine	=in the course of the week
le onze juin	=the eleventh of June
vous êtes *le* onzième	=you are the eleventh.

146. Contraction. When the masculine definite article, preceded by the prepositions *de* (of) or *à* (to), is placed before a substantive beginning with a consonant or *h* aspirate, both the article and the preposition are blended into one word. Thus—

de le	becomes	*du* :	*du* père (of the father)
	,,	:	*du* *h*éros (of the hero)
de les	,,	*des* :	*des* pères (of the fathers)
	,,	:	*des* *h*éros (of the heroes)
à le	,,	*au* :	*au* père (to the father)
	,,	:	*au* *h*éros (to the hero)
à les	,,	*aux* :	*aux* pères (to the fathers)
	,,	:	*aux* *h*éros (to the heroes).

This blending of the definite article with the two prepositions *de* and *à* is called **contraction.**

In Old French *de le* became *del*, and *à le*, *al*. Towards the twelfth century the *l* was deadened into *u*, as in *aube*=dawn, from Latin *alba*; *autre*=other, from Latin *alter*; in the same way as "étal" became *étau* (vice, a smith's instrument) and "val"=*vau*, in the expression à *vau* l'eau (with the current *or* stream), or in *Vaugirard*=a village near Paris (Vallis Gerardi, so called after the abbot Gérard de Moret, who built there an hospital for sick monks, in the thirteenth century). For the change of *al* into *au*, see § 87. *Del* was changed into *deu* in the same way as the old form *chevel* (which has remained in the word

*chevel*ure=head of hair) has become *cheveu*=hair. Later on *deu* was contracted into *du* by changing *eu* into *u*, as in the old words m*eu*, bl*eu*et, b*eu*vant, which are now spelt m*u* (moved), bl*u*et (corn-flower), b*u*vant (drinking).

As *à le* became *al*, then *au*, so the plural *à les* gave, in Old French, *als*, and afterwards *aus*, and, lastly, *aux*. See §§ 86 and 87.—*De les*, formerly contracted into *dels*, was reduced to *des* in the twelfth century.

SECTION II.

INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

147. The **indefinite article** in French is—

un = a *or* an, before masculine substantives,
une = a *or* an, before feminine substantives,
des = some, before substantives of both genders;

as—

une homme=a man, **des** hommes=some men
une femme=a woman, **des** femmes=some women.

(*See* Syntax of the Article.)

The French indefinite article comes from the Latin *unus*, *una*, which among the Romans had already the indefinite meaning of *a* or *an*, *one*, *some*, *some one*—*e.g.*, "Sicut unus paterfamilias his de rebus loquor" (Cic. de Or. i., 29, 132); "Unus aliquis," &c.—In Latin the plural of *unus* was *uni*, *unæ*, *una* (*unæ* litteræ, *una* castra); it has remained in French in the expressions *les uns* (the ones), *quelques-uns* (some ones). In Old French the feminine plural *unes* was also used; thus we find in the little romance of "Aucassin et Nicolette": **unes** *grandes joues*, **unes** *grandes lèvres*, for **deux** *grandes joues* = two big cheeks; **deux** *grandes lèvres* = two big lips.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE ADJECTIVE.

148. The **adjective** is a word added to the substantive to express the quality of a person or thing—that is to say, to indicate "what is" that person or thing. Thus, when we say, "L'hom-

est mortel"=man is mortal, or, "Le cheval est noir," the adjective *mortel* makes us know that man is *mortal;* and *noir*, that the horse is *black*. *Mortel* and *noir* are adjectives.

The word *adjective* comes from the Latin *adjectivus*, and means, therefore, "added to." For further details, see § 64.

149. There are three different sorts of adjectives:

1. *Qualifying.*
2. *Determinative.*
3. *Indefinite.*

(1) **Qualifying** adjectives express only the quality, as "les *grands* hommes" = the *great* (celebrated) men.

(2) **Determinative** adjectives show precisely the object designated by the substantive to which they refer, as "*mon* chapeau" = *my* hat; "*ce* cheval" = *this* horse.

(3) **Indefinite** adjectives mark that the substantive is used in a vague and general manner, as "*Chaque* pays a ses coutumes" = every country has its customs; "*Plusieurs* hommes sont venus"=several men have come.

150. Adjectives take the mark of **both genders and numbers.**

SECTION I.

FORMATION OF THE FEMININE OF QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

151. GENERAL RULE.—The feminine of qualifying adjectives is formed *by adding an e mute to the masculine:*

méchant (wicked), méchant-*e*
saint (holy), saint-*e*.

In Latin *a* was the mark of the feminine, whilst *us* was that of the masculine: bon*us*=*bon*=good; bon*a*=bon*ne*=good. The final *a* became always *e mute* in French (divin*a*=divin*e*=divine; human*a*=humain*e*=human; etc.). That *e mute* became in French the distinctive sign of the feminine.

152. The masculine and feminine of adjectives ending in *e* are the same, as—

un chapeau *large* =a broad-brimmed hat
la rivière est *large*=the river is wide
un homme *maigre*=a thin man
une femme *maigre*=a thin woman
un homme *sage* =a wise man
une politique *sage* =a wise policy.

153. Some adjectives not only take *e* final to form their feminine, but they either—(a) double the consonant at the end of the masculine form, as—

MASC.	FEM.
bon =good	bonn*e*
cruel=cruel	cruell*e*
net =clear, neat	nett*e*.

(b) or change the final consonant of the masculine form into another, as—

MASC.	FEM.
bref =brief, short	brèv*e*
jaloux =jealous	jalous*e*
trompeur =deceiver	trompeus*e*.

(c) Lastly some adjectives, to become feminine, have to change the last syllable of the masculine. Thus—

fier =proud,	becomes	fièr*e*
fou =foolish, mad,	,,	foll*e*
nouveau=new,	,,	nouvell*e*

Let us study these different cases separately :

154. To form the feminine of adjectives ending in **el, eil ; en, on ; et, ot,** and **s**—the final *l, n, t,* and *s must be doubled* before the final e mute is added—

MASC.	FEM.
anci*en* =ancient	anci*enn*e
bo*n* =good	bo*nn*e
cru*el* =cruel	cru*ell*e

MASC.		FEM.
*gra*s	=fat	grass*e*
*gro*s	=big	gross*e*
*épai*s	=thick	épaiss*e*
*mu*et	=dumb	muett*e*
*pa*reil	=alike	pareill*e*
*vieill*ot	=oldish	vieillott*e*.

There are to this rule some few exceptions, which the student will soon know by practice or by the use of the dictionary; let us only say that the **six** following adjectives, instead of doubling the final consonant, take a grave accent on the penultimate:

MASC.		FEM.
complet	=complete	complète
concret	=concrete	concrète
discret	=discreet	discrète
inquiet	=uneasy	inquiète
replet	=stout	replète
secret	=secret	secrète.

These adjectives coming from the Latin *completus, concretus, discretus, inquietus, repletus, secretus*, are words introduced by the learned (see § 10), and therefore do not follow the rule of reduplication which is applied to the words of popular origin.

155.

beau	=beautiful,	becomes	bell*e*	in the feminine
jumeau	=twin,	,,	jumell*e*	,,
nouveau	=new,	,,	nouvell*e*	,,
fou	=foolish, mad,	,,	foll*e*	,,
mou	=soft,	,,	moll*e*	,,
vieux	=old	,,	vieill*e*	,,

The explanation we have given (§ 115) shows that, by the softening of *l* into *u*, the adjectives *beau, jumeau, nouveau, fou*, and *mou* come from the Old French *bel, jumel, nouvel, fol*, and *mol*. Now, according to the rule given in § 154, to form the feminine of these adjectives, the final *l* must be doubled before the *e mute* is added; thus we have b*elle*, jum*elle*, nouv*elle*, f*olle*, m*olle*. For the same reason *vieille* is the feminine of *vieux* (old), which in Old French was *vieil*. And that feminine (*vieille*) is quite as regular as *pareille*, feminine of *pareil* =alike, or *vermeille*, feminine of *vermeil*=rosy, ruddy.

The masculine forms *bel, nouvel, fol*, and *mol* are still found before

substantives beginning with a vowel or *h* mute, in order to avoid the meeting of two vowels (called *hiatus*), thus we must say—

un *bel* homme	=a fine man,	instead of	un *beau* homme
le *nouvel* an	=the new year,	,,	le *nouveau* an
le *fol* enfant	=the mad, wild boy,	,,	le *fou* enfant
le *moi* édredon	=the soft eider-down,	,,	le *mou* édredon.

156. To form the feminine of adjectives ending in **x** change **x** into **s**, and add *e mute*, as—

MASC.		FEM.
jalou**x**	=jealous	jalou**se**
heureu**x**	=happy	heureu**se**.

Some adjectives even double that **s**, as—

MASC.		FEM.
fau**x**	=false	fau**sse**
rou**x**	=sandy (of the hair)	rou**sse**.

Exception—

dou**x**	=sweet	dou**ce**.

For the change of *x* into *s*, see § 46; and for the reduplication of *x* into *ss*, see § 154.—In the Middle Ages, *doux*, *faux*, *roux* were spelt *dous*, *faus*, *rous*, the feminine form being *dousse*, *fausse*, *rousse*, just as the feminine of *gras* is *grasse*, or *gros* = *grosse*. *S* being sounded like *z* between two vowels, the feminine of *gros* and *gras* was written grasse and grosse, in order to preserve the hard pronunciation of the letter *s*. By the same reason *c soft* has been substituted to *s* in the feminine adjective *douce* (see § 39).

157. The masculine adjectives ending in **f** form their feminine by changing the final **f** into **v**, and adding *e mute:*

MASC.		FEM.
*bre***f**	=short	brè**ve**
craintif	=fearful, timid	craintive
*neu***f**	=new	neu**ve**

The reason of the feminine of these adjectives being:

brève, and not *brefe*
craintive, ,, *craintife*
neuve, ,, *neufe*,

is explained by the fact that the Latin *v* remains in French whenever it is followed by a vowel (*nova*=neu*ve*=new), whilst it is changed into *f* when it happens to be at the end of a word (neu*f*=new, from no*v*um;—bœu*f*=ox, from bo*v*em;—œu*f*=egg, from o*v*um;—ser*f*=slave, from ser*v*um; cer*f*=stag, from cer*v*um).

158. Some adjectives ending in *c* hard, (sounded as *k*), form their feminine by changing **c** into **que**, as—

MASC.	FEM.
caduc=decayed	cadu*que*
public=public	publi*que*
turc=turkish	tur*que*.

But the adjective **Grec**=Greek keeps the final **c** before the last syllable **que**—*i.e.*=Gre*cque*.

C and *g* before the vowels *a*, *o*, *u* are hard (see § 35), as in *ca*non=cannon, *co*rps=body, *cu*ré=parish-priest, *ga*lon=tape, *go*ret=little pig, *Gu*stave=Gustavus, and soft before the vowel *e*, as in *ce*rveau=brain, *gé*mir=to groan. If *e mute* only had been added to caduc, public, turc, we should have had the forms cadu*ce*, public*e*, turc*e*, in which the *c* would have lost its hard sound. In order to preserve it in the feminine form, it was necessary to replace *c* by its equivalent *qu*; for the same reason *long*=long makes long*ue*, and not long*e* (which is a substantive feminine—*e.g.*, "longe de veau"=a loin of veal).—As for the *c* in the feminine adjective *grecque*, it is a misspelling of the grammarians of the sixteenth century.

159. But most adjectives ending in *c mute* (*blanc*=white, *franc*=frank), or in *c* hard (*sec*—dry) change *c* into *che* in the feminine: *blan*che, *fran*che, *sè*che.

The feminine of *frais* (fresh, cool) is **fraîche**.

The feminine being *a* in Latin (bon*us*, bon*a*), the termination of adjectives ending in *cus* (juridi*cus*=juridique=judiciary; veridi*cus*=véridique=truthful; si*ccus*=sec=dry) becomes *ca* in the feminine (juridi*ca*, veridi*ca*, si*cca*); but, as we have seen in § 35, the *ca* at the end of a word and preceded by a consonant becomes always *che* in French, as in ar*ca*=arche=arch: fur*ca*=four*che*=fork; mus*ca*=mou*che*=fly; per*ca*=per*che*=perch, pole;—so the masculine adjective si*cus*, giving the French **sec**, the feminine si*cca*, becomes naturally sè*che*, as va*ca*=cow gave va*che*, and bu*cca*=mouth gave bou*che*. With regard to the grave accent in *sèche*, see §§ 17 and 22.

The feminine of *frais* was formerly *fraische*, and became *fraîche* by the loss of *s* (see § 18).

160. Adjectives ending in **g** form their feminine by adding *ue*, as long=long, fem. long*ue*; oblong = oblong, fem. oblong*ue*.

For explanation, see § 158.

161. The feminine of adjectives ending in **eur** is generally **euse**, as—

MASC.	FEM.
*ment*eur=lying, deceitful	*ment*euse
*vol*eur =thieving	*vol*euse;

Except *maj*eur—major, greater; *meill*eur, better; and some others which follow the general rule (see § 151)—that is to say, their feminine is formed by adding an *e mute* to the masculine.

For the explanation of the change of *eur* into *euse*, or into *eresse* (in such words as *veng*eur=avenger, fem. *veng*eresse), or *teur* into *trice* (as in *accusa*teur=accuser, fem. *accusa*trice, *conduc*teur=leader, fem. con*duc*trice, see §§ 70 and 134.

162. In the case of the adjectives ending in *er mute* (as *lég*er= light, *étrang*er = stranger, *passag*er=passing by)—that is to say, in which *er* has the sound of *é shut* (see § 22), the *e* of the feminine becoming an *è open*, the syllable *er* is sounded (see again § 22): hence the feminine forms *légère*, *étrangère*, *passagère*.

The same rule applies to the following six adjectives already mentioned in § 154:—

MASC.	FEM.
*compl*et=complete	*compl*ète
*concr*et =concrete	*concr*ète
*discr*et =discreet	*discr*ète
*inqui*et =uneasy	*inqui*ète
*repl*et =replete	*repl*ète
*secr*et =secret	*secr*ète.

163. The feminine of adjectives ending in **gu** is formed by changing that termination into **guë**—that is to say, a diæresis is placed over the final *e mute*, as—

MASC.		FEM.
aigu	=acute	aiguë
ambigu	=ambiguous	ambiguë.

(See § 59.)

This diæresis shows that the two vowels must be sounded *u*, *e*, and that such words as aig*uë*, ambig*uë*, are not to be confounded with such others as aig*ue*-marine=aqua-marina, bag*ue*=ring, bèg*ue*=stammerer, vag*ue*=vague, in which *ue* is quite mute.

164. The feminine of *bénin*=good-natured is *bén*igne
,, *malin*=malicious ,, *mal*igne
,, *favori*=favourite ,, *favor*ite
,, *coi* =still, quiet ,, *coi*te.

Bénin and *malin* come from the Latin *benignum* and *malignum*, and *gn*, which in the masculine had been reduced to final *n*, reappears in the feminine bén*ign*e, mal*ign*e, from *benigna*, *maligna*, because it is then followed by a vowel at the end of the word.

165. EXCEPTION.—Feminine French adjectives end always in *e mute*, except *grand*, which remains unchanged in such expressions as—

grand'*croix* = grand cross
grand'*mère* = grandmother
grand'*messe* = high mass
grand'*peur* = great fear
à **grand'***peine* = with great difficulty
pas **grand'***chose* = not much
mère **grand** = grandmother, granny;
&c., &c., &c.

At the outset French grammar was nothing but the continuation of Latin grammar; consequently Old French adjectives follow closely the Latin ones. The adjectives which in Latin had one termination for the masculine (*bonus*), and another for the feminine (*bona*), had also two terminations in French (*bon*, *bonne*); and those which had only one termination for both genders (as *grandis*, homo *grandis*, femina *grandis*), had but one in French also. Thus in

the thirteenth century people said "une *grand* femme"=a tall woman; "une mère *grand*," a grandmother; "une âme *mortel*" (mortalis), a mortal soul; "une coutume *cruel*" (crudelis), a cruel custom; "une plaine *vert*" (viridis), a green meadow;—using the masculine form for both genders, because in Latin *grandis*, *crudelis*, &c., had but one form for the masculine and the feminine.

In the fourteenth century, men no longer understanding the reason of this distinction, and supposing it to be an irregularity, began to add an *e mute* to these adjectives, and wrote *grande*, *cruelle*, *verte*, *mortelle*, for the purpose of assimilating them to the other adjectives, *bonne*, *longue*, *blanche*, &c. However, the older form remained in such common expressions as *grand route*, *grand mère*, &c.... And the grammarians of the sixteenth century believing wrongly that *grand* was an abbreviation of *grande*, placed an apostrophe after it (hence the present spelling *grand' mère*, *grand' route*), in order to mark the omission of an *e mute*, which in reality had never existed.

SECTION II.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL OF ADJECTIVES.

166. GENERAL RULE.—The plural of adjectives is formed like that of substantives, *i.e.*, by adding **s** to the singular:

SING.	MASC. PL.	FEM. PL.
grand=great, tall	grands	grandes
saint =holy	saints	saintes.

We have seen (§ 84) the reason why *s* is in French the mark of the plural, whilst its absence generally denotes the singular.

167. When the adjective, in the singular, ends already in *s*, there is no change in the plural *masculine*, but in the plural *feminine* the general rule is applied, as—

SING.	MASC. PL.	FEM. PL.
gros =big	gros	grosses
épais =thick	épais	épaisses.

Examples: *Des hommes gros* = big men; *des murs épais* = thick walls.—*Les grosses dents* = the big teeth; *des forêts épaisses* = thick forests.

168. Adjectives ending in **x**, in the singular, do not change in the plural *masculine*, as—

*heureu***x** (happy) *des hommes heureu***x** =happy men
*glorieu***x** (glorious) *des souvenirs glorieu***x**=glorious memorials.

For the explanation of this rule, see §§ 85 and 46.

But, of course, *s* is added to the plural feminine of these adjectives (*heureu***se**, *glorieu***se**):

*des femmes heureu***ses**=happy women
*des actions glorieu***ses**=glorious deeds.

169. EXCEPTIONS.—I. Adjectives ending in **al** change that termination into **aux**, in the masculine plural, as—

SING.	PLUR.
*ég***al** =equal	*ég***aux**
*lég***al**=legal	*lég***aux**
*loy***al**=faithful	*loy***aux.**

For the change of *al* into *aux*, see §§ 86 and 87.—The adjectives *fatal*=fatal, and *glacial*=freezing, taken from the Latin by the scholars of modern times (see § 10), form their plural by adding *s* to the singular (*fatal***s**, *glacial***s**). According to the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie* the following adjectives have no plural masculine:

amical =friendly	*jovial*=merry
automnal =autumnal	*natal*= native
colossal =colossal	*naval*=naval.

The same Dictionary does not say anything about the masculine plural of *filial*=filial, *final*=final, and *initial*=initial.

But the plural feminine of these adjectives is formed in the regular way; *ég***ales**, *lég***ales**, *loy***ales.**

170. II. Adjectives ending in **eau** take **x** in the *masculine* plural, but follow the general rule in the *feminine* plural, as—

MASC. SING.	MASC. PL.	FEM. SING.	FEM. PL.
*b***eau** =beautiful	*beau***x**	*belle*	*belle***s**
*nouv***eau**=new	*nouveau***x**	*nouvelle*	*nouvelle***s.**

For the explanation of the rule concerning the masculine plural, see § 86.

171. III. The adjective *bleu* = blue, follows the general rule —*bleus* (masc. pl.), *bleues* (fem. pl.); but *hébreu* = Hebrew, makes *hébreux* in the masculine plural, and is not used in the feminine. (The adjective *hébraïque* takes its place, as "la langue *hébraïque* = the Hebrew tongue).

Lastly **tout** = all, is the only adjective that changes **t** into **s** for the masculine plural, but it follows the general rule in the feminine plural, as—

tous les hommes = all men
toutes les nations = all nations.

For the *x* in the masculine plural of *hébreu*, see § 86.

SECTION III.

OF THE DEGREES OF SIGNIFICATION IN ADJECTIVES.*

172. It has been already said (§ 148) that the adjective expresses the quality of a person or thing; now every quality is capable of admitting three different degrees; when I say—

(a) *Mon cheval est noir* = my horse is black;
(b) *Mon cheval est plus noir que le vôtre* = my horse is blacker than yours;
(c) *Mon cheval est le plus noir de tous les chevaux* = my horse is the blackest of all horses—

I express three entirely distinct ideas:

(a) The first degree, in which I only affirm that "my horse is black" is called **le positif** = the positive (in reality, the positive is the adjective itself);
(b) The second degree, in which I compare my horse to that of my neighbour, is called **le comparatif** = the comparative;
(c) The third degree, in which I affirm that my horse is the blackest of all horses, is called **le superlatif** = the superlative.

Positif is derived from the Latin expression *positivus gradus* used by Roman grammarians to denote the first degree.

* Generally called "Degrees of Comparison."

Comparatif and *superlatif* likewise come from the expressions *comparativus gradus* and *superlativus gradus* which the Roman grammarians employed.

173. The **comparative** may either express—

(a) *superiority*, in which case the adverb **plus** = more, is placed before the adjective and **que** = than, after it, as—

mon cheval est **plus** noir **que** *le vôtre* = my horse is blacker than yours.

or, (b) *inferiority*, in which case the adverb **moins** = less, is placed before the adjective, and **que** = than, after it—

mon cheval est **moins** *noir* **que** *le vôtre* = my horse is less black than yours (not so black as yours).

or, (c) *equality*, in which case the adverb **aussi** precedes the adjective and **que** follows it—

mon cheval est **aussi** *noir* **que** *le vôtre* = my horse is as black as yours.

There are, therefore, three comparatives: (a) of *superiority*; (b) of *inferiority*; (c) of *equality*.

In Latin the comparative was expressed by the termination *-ior* (*prudentem* = prudent = prudent, *prudent*-ior = plus prudent = more prudent); and the superlative by the termination *-issimus* (prudent-*issimus* = très-prudent = very prudent). Towards the end of the Roman Empire there was in popular Latin, as we have already seen, a general tendency to substitute prepositions and adverbs instead of cases and terminations. As the Latin abandoned the genitive, dative, etc., and expressed these cases by the prepositions *de* and *ad*, so the adverb *magis* (more) took the place of the ending *-ior* for the comparative, and *maximè* (*très* = very) that of the ending *-issimus* for the superlative. Thus, from *prudentem* were formed *magis prudentem* = plus prudent, and *maximè prudentem* = très-prudent. The French adopted this way of expressing degrees of signification with the help of the adverbs *moins* = less, *plus* = more, *très* = very, etc., instead of adding a termination to the adjective.

However, *five* comparatives, irregular in Latin, have passed into the French language—

		COMPARATIVE.	LATIN ACCUSATIVES.
bon	=good	*meilleur*=better	*meliorem*
mauvais	=bad	*pire* =worse	*pejorem*
petit	=small, little	*moindre*=less	*minorem.*

Besides, the two comparatives *major*=*plus grand*=greater, and *senior* =*plus vieux*=older, have remained in French as substantives, although losing their primitive meanings; thus we have *maire*=mayor, and *seigneur*=lord.

174. EXCEPTIONS.—The comparatives of the three adjectives, *bon, mauvais, petit,* are irregular. See note of preceding §.

N.B.—The regular comparatives, *plus mauvais* and *plus petit,* are also used.

175. The adjective is in the *superlative* when it expresses—

(a) A quality in the highest degree *without any comparison,* as *mon cheval est* **très**-*noir* = my horse is very black, *i.e.,* my horse is *quite* black. This is called the **superlative absolute,** and is expressed by *très, fort, bien, extrêmement,* etc., all meaning *very.*

(b) A quality in the highest degree either (*a*) *superior, but as compared with other persons or objects of the same kind,* as *mon cheval est* **le plus** *noir de tous les chevaux de la ville* = my horse is the blackest of all the horses in the town; or (*b*) *inferior,* as *ma sœur est* **la moins** *forte de nous tous* = my sister is the weakest (*lit.* least strong) of us all. These are called **superlatives relative.**

The origin of the superlative is explained in § 172.

SECTION IV.

FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES.

176. French adjectives are formed in the same way as nouns (see § 92)—that is to say, by *composition* (see § 93), and by *derivation* (see § 94).

177. Adjectives are formed by *composition:* (a)—either two simple adjectives are joined together, such as *aigre* (sour) and *doux* (sweet), to form a compound adjective: *aigre-doux* = sourish; or (b)—a prefix is placed before simple adjectives (see § 95), for the purpose of giving them a new meaning; as *bien*-heureux = happy, blessed; *mal*-heureux = unhappy, *in*-constant = variable; *sous*-marin = submarine; *sur*-humain = superhuman. The prefixes, most often used are **archi, anti, bien, demi, in, mal, sous, sur, ultra.**

1.—List of prefixes.

178. Archi denotes a superior degree of quality; *fou* = mad, *archi*fou, quite mad, stark mad; *noble* = noble, *archi*noble, most noble; *pédant* = pedantic, *archi*pédant = most pedantic, etc.

Anti indicates opposition: *religieux* = religious, *anti*religieux = irreligious = he who is against religion; *français* = French, *anti*français = he who is against the French.

In gives to the adjective a contrary meaning: *guérissable* = curable, *in*guérissable = incurable; *constant* = constant, *in*constant = inconstant; *trouvable* = discoverable, which can be found, *in*trouvable = undiscoverable, not to be found, etc.

Ultra denotes exaggeration: *républicain* = republican, *ultra*-républicain = ultra-republican.

Although *archi, anti, in,* and *ultra* are prefixes introduced by scholars (see § 97), they are admitted in popular French, and constantly used.

Archi and *anti* are derived from the Greek ἀρχί = above, and ἀντί = against; *in* and *ultra* are the Latin words *in* (privative) and *ultra* (beyond).

179. The adverbs *bien* = well, *mal* = badly, ill, *demi* = half, *sous* = under, *sur* = upon, super, used in compounds, give to the adjective so clear a meaning that examples will suffice to illustrate it:

Bien: *bien*heureux = happy, blessed; *bien*-aimé = beloved; *bien*faisant = benevolent, etc.

Mal = *mal*heureux = unfortunate; *mal*honnête = dishonest, uncivil; *mal*faisant = malicious; *mal*sain = unhealthy, etc.

Demi = *demi*-fin = middling quality ; *demi*-noir = half black.
Sous = *sous*-marin = submarine, etc.
Sur (meaning *above*) = *sur*aigu = very acute ; *sur*fin = superfine ; *sur*humain = superhuman, etc.

For the origin of these prefixes, see Chapter vii.

2.—Adjectives formed by derivation.

180. New adjectives are formed by *derivation* (see § 94) with the help of substantives, adjectives, and verbs, *already existing in French*:—

(a) **Substantives** (pier*reux* — stony, from *pierre* = stone) ;
(b) **Adjectives** (noir*âtre* = blackish, from *noir* = black) ;
(c) **Verbs** (trompe*ur* = deceiver, from *tromper* = to deceive).

A.—Adjectives derived from substantives.

181. New adjectives are formed by adding to the substantive the terminations **eux, ain, in, é, er, u.**

182. eux (**euse**, in the feminine) is the suffix most generally used. Originally it denoted the *quality* of the object : épin*eux* (which has thorns), pierr*eux* (which has stones), but that signification eventually grew wider, and the adjectives thus formed are now very numerous :

courag*eux*	= courageous,	from *courage*	= courage
danger*eux*	= dangerous,	„ *danger*	= danger
goutt*eux*	= gouty,	„ *goutte*	= gout
peur*eux*	= fearful,	„ *peur*	= fear
souci*eux*	= full of care,	„ *souci*	= care ; etc.

This suffix comes from the Latin *-osum*, which has the same meaning, and was similarly used for making new adjectives with the help of substantives : glori*osum* = glori*eux* = glorious, from *gloria* = *gloire* = glory.

183. Ain: mond*ain* = worldly, from *monde* = world.

For the origin of the suffix *ain*, see 103.

184. é generally denotes *possession*:

ail*é*	= which has wings, winged,	from	*aile*	= wing
âg*é*	= old,	,,	*âge*	= age
affair*é*	= busy,	,,	*affaire*	= business
manièr*é*	= affected (in manners),	,,	*manière*	= manner; etc.

é comes from the Latin *-atus*:

al*atus*	= ail*é* = winged,	from	*ala*	= *aile* = wing
crist*atus*	= crêt*é* = crested,	,,	*cresta*	= *crête* = crest.

For the change of *atus* in *é*, see § 101.

185. er:

mensong*er*	= untrue, lying,	from	*mensonge*	= lie
bocag*er*	= shady, of groves,	,,	*bocage*	= grove
passag*er*	= passing, of passage,	,,	*passage*	= passage.

The origin of the suffix *er* is explained in § 107.

186. in:

enfant*in*	= childish,	from	*enfant*	= child
mar*in*	= marine,	,,	*mer*	= sea
sal*in*	= saline,	,,	*sel*	= salt; etc.

The suffix *in* is the Latin *-inus*: div*inus* = *divin* = divine, lat*inus* = latin, etc.

187. u:

barb*u*	= bearded,	from	*barbe*	= beard
boss*u*	= humpbacked,	,,	*bosse*	= hump
croch*u*	= hooked,	,,	*croc*	= hook
fourch*u*	= forked,	,,	*fourche*	= fork
têt*u*	= headstrong, obstinate,	,,	*tête*	= head; etc.

u comes from the Latin *-utus*, which denoted *possession*: corn-*utus* = *cornu* = horned, from *cornu* = *corne* = horn; etc.

B.—Adjectives derived from other adjectives.

188. New adjectives are formed with the help of the four terminations—**âtre, et** (and **elet**), **ot** and **aud.** These are called *diminutive suffixes.* (See § 112.)

189. âtre denotes, in the first place, *diminution* or *weakening:*

blanch*âtre* = qui est un peu blanc = whitish, *i.e.*, which is *a little* white, from *blanc* = white
bleu*âtre* = bluish, ,, *bleu* = blue
gris*âtre* = greyish, ,, *gris* = grey
verd*âtre* = greenish ,, *vert* = green;

Secondly, it naturally has a *depreciatory* meaning, and is used in a bad sense:

bell*âtre* = ridiculously handsome, foppish, of insipid beauty, from *bel* (*beau*) = handsome
douce*âtre* = hypocritically sweet, gentle (of persons); sweetish (of fruit, vegetables, etc.), from *douce*, feminine of *doux* = sweet; etc.

âtre (*astre* in the Middle Ages) comes from Low Latin *aster*, which was likewise used in a bad sense: poet*aster* = un mauvais poëte = a wretched, bad poet. The Old French *astre* has become *âtre*, just as *pastre* became *pâtre* = shepherd. See § 18.

190. et (**ette** in the feminine) denotes *diminution:*

aigr*et* = sourish, from *aigre* = sour
foll*et* = *waggish*, ,, *fol* (*fou*) = mad
longu*et* = longish, ,, *long* = long
moll*et* in *œuf mollet* = *lit.* soft-boiled egg, from *mol* (*mou*) = soft; etc.

The insertion of *el* between the simple adjective and the suffix *et* gives a *still stronger diminutive meaning*, as—

aigre = sour, aigr*et* = sourish, aigr*elet* = a little sourish
maigre = lean, thin, maigr*et* = thinnish, maigr*elet* = very thin.

Grand*elet* = tallish, and rond*elet* = roundish, stoutish, have been formed from *grand* = great, and *rond* = round.

The origin and meaning of *el* inserted between the adjective and the suffix *et* are given in § 116.

191. ot (**otte** in the feminine) denotes also *diminution* or *depreciation*, and is used in a bad sense:

vieill*ot* = oldish, applied to persons who look old before their time, through intemperance or dissipation; etc.

See § 118.

192. aud likewise indicates *depreciation:*

court*aud*	=dumpy,	from *court*	=short
fin*aud*	=sly, cunning,	„ *fin*	=sharp
lourd*aud*	=clumsy,	„ *lourd*	=heavy
sal*aud*	=filthy,	„ *sale*	=dirty
sourd*aud*	=hard of hearing,	„ *sourd*	=deaf.

The suffix *aud* (originally *ald*) comes from the German, and was brought by the Franks when they invaded Gaul.

C.—Adjectives derived from verbs.

193. The French language makes new adjectives either by taking the **participle of the verb,** or by adding to the verbs the three suffixes **able, ard, if.**

194. Formation of adjectives with the participle of the verb. The present participle and the past participles are used to form new adjectives:

(a) **Present participle:** *charmant* = charming, present participle of *charmer* = to please, delight; *dévorant* = devouring, present participle of *dévorer* = to devour.

(b) **Past participle:** *connu* = known, past participle of *connaître* = to know; *poli* = polite *or* smooth, past participle of *polir* = to polish.

These new adjectives follow the rules of the other adjectives for the formation of the feminine and the plural, as—

charmant,	charmant*e*,	charmant*s*	charmant*es;*
connu,	connu*e*,	connu*s*,	connu*es*.

In some cases the original verb has disappeared in Modern French, being represented only by the present participle used as an adjective, thus the adjective *béant*=yawning, wide open, is the only vestige of the Old French verb *béer*=to open one's mouth. This applies also to *galant*=gallant, from the Old French verb *galer*=to rejoice, enjoy oneself; and *nonchalant*=careless, from the obsolete verb *nonchaloir*=to care for nothing.

195. able:

compar*able* =which can be compared, from *comparer*=to compare
recev*able* =receivable, from *recevoir*=to receive
remarqu*able* =remarkable, from *remarquer*=to remark, notice
servi*able* =obliging, serviceable, from *servir*=to serve, be of service to
souhait*able* =desirable, to be wished for, from *souhaiter*=to wish.

The suffix *-able* comes from the Latin *-abilis*, which has the same meaning, and which, being added to verbs, forms adjectives, as compar*abilis*=*comparable*=comparable, from *comparare*=*comparer*=to compare.

196. ard denotes *depreciation*, and is taken in a bad sense:

bav*ard* =blabbing, from *baver* =to dribble
cri*ard* =squalling „ *crier* =to cry
grogn*ard* =grumbling, „ *grogner*=to grumble
pill*ard* =plundering, „ *piller* =to plunder.

See § 104.

197. if:

hât*if* =precocious, hasty, from *hâter* =to hasten
offens*if* =offensive, „ *offenser* =to offend
oppress*if*=oppressive, „ *oppresser* =to oppress
pens*if* =thoughtful, „ *penser* =to think
tard*if* =tardy, late, „ *tarder* =to delay, linger.

The suffix *if* comes from the Latin *-ivus*, used by the Romans to form adjectives from the verbs; thus laudat*ivus*=laudatif=laudatory, from *laudare*=*louer*=to praise; etc.

SECTION V.

DETERMINATIVE ADJECTIVES.

198. There are three sorts of determinative adjectives:

Numeral adjectives,
Possessive adjectives,
Demonstrative adjectives.

SECTION VI.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

199. The adjectives we have just studied denote only the *quality* of objects, but not their *quantity*. When we say "trois chevaux noirs" = *three black horses*, or "le deuxième livre" = *the second book*, the adjectives *trois*, *deuxième*, do not indicate the quality of the horse or of the book, but the **number** of horses and the **rank** of the book. These adjectives are accordingly called **numeral**—that is to say, which denote number, from the Latin *numerus* = number.

200. Numeral adjectives indicating the *number* of objects, as *trois* = three, *quatre* = four, *cinq* = five, are called **cardinal.**

201. Those which mark the *rank* occupied by the object, as *troisième* = third, *quatrième* = fourth, *cinquième* = fifth, are called **ordinal.**

Latin Grammarians called these two sorts of adjectives *numeri cardinales* (from Latin acc. *cardinem*, "the hinge of a door") = principal or fundamental numbers, because they are the foundation of all enumeration,—and *numeri ordinales* = ordinal numbers, marking the order (=*ordinem*), and the rank.

A.—Cardinal numeral adjectives.

202. These adjectives denoting *number* or *quantity* are named up to 10 as follows:

zéro =nought	*cinq*=five
un =one	*six* =six
deux =two	*sept* =seven
trois =three	*huit*=eight
quatre=four	*neuf*=nine

dix=ten.

The French number as the Romans did, and have admitted their terms of numeration:

un (*unus*)	six (*sex*)
deux (*duo*)	sept (*septem*)
trois (*tres*)	huit (*octo*)
quatre (*quatuor*)	neuf (*novem*)
cinq (*quinque*)	dix (*decem*).

But, in the Middle Ages, the Roman system of writing numbers by capital letters was abandoned for that of the Arabs, who expressed numbers by figures. The Arab mathematicians used a sign called *zéro*, which, though having no value by itself, multiplies by *ten* the figure at the right of which it is placed. This sign, together with its Arabic name, was also adopted by the French. (For the history of the word *zéro*, see Brachet's *Dictionnaire étymologique*.)

203. From 10 to 20 the cardinal numeral adjectives are expressed by a **single** word:

onze =eleven	*quatorze*=fourteen
douze=twelve	*quinze* =fifteen
treize=thirteen	*seize* =sixteen.

Except the three last ones which are formed with *dix*:

dix-*sept* =seventeen
dix-*huit*=eighteen
dix-*neuf*=nineteen.

For the explanation of the transformation of the Latin *duodecim* into *douze*, *tredecim* into *treize*, *quatuordecim* into *quatorze*, *quindecim* into *quinze*, *sexdecim* into *seize*, see Brachet's *Dictionnaire étymologique* —In Latin 17, 18, and 19 were expressed either by one word: *septem*-.

decim (17), *duodeviginti* (18), *undeviginti* (19), or by three distinct words: *decem et septem* (17), *decem et octo* (18), *decem et novem* (19), and the grammarian Priscianus tells us that the Roman people preferred and used the later way, as being more clear. The French followed that example, and expressed originally 17, 18, and 19 by the old forms, *dix et sept*, *dix et huit*, *dix et neuf*, which, towards the thirteenth century, were contracted into *dix-sept*, *dix-huit*, *dix-neuf*.

204. From 20 to 100 the decades are expressed by **a single** word:

vingt =twenty *quarante* =forty
trente =thirty *cinquante*=fifty
soixante=sixty.

Except the three last ones, which are compound words:

soixante-*dix* =seventy
quatre-*vingts* =eighty
quatre-*vingt-dix* =ninety.

The first decades come directly from the Latin:

viginti (vingt) *quadraginta* (quarante)
triginta (trente) *quinquaginta* (cinquante)
sexaginta (soixante).

To the Latin *septuaginta* (70), *octoginta* (80), and *nonaginta* (90), the French have substituted three compound forms which require an explanation.

The Celtic nations numbered by *twenty* (as is still the case in the Scotch and Welsh dialects), saying, for instance, *dix et vingt* (=ten and twenty) for *trente* (=thirty); *onze et vingt* (=eleven and twenty) for *trente et un* (=thirty-one); *deux vingts* (=two twenties) for *quarante* (=forty), etc. After the Roman conquest the Gauls were obliged to adopt the *decimal* numeration of the Latin, but were long before they entirely lost their habit of numbering by twenty, for we find it still existing in the Middle Ages, when the *even decades* (120, 140, 160, etc.) stood thus—

trois-vingts for 60 *six-vingts* for 120
quatre-vingts for 80 *sept-vingts* for 140;

—that is to say, three times twenty, four times twenty, etc. Traces of this ancient usage remain even in our day (to say nothing of *quatre-vingts*=80), as in the hospital "des *Quinze-Vingts*" (15×20=300), founded by St. Louis to support 300 blind crusaders; so also Bossuet

and Voltaire have made use of the expression *six-vingts ans* for 120 *ans*=120 years.

205. From 100 (*cent*= hundred) and upwards the following words are used.

mille=thousand *million*=million
milliard=thousand millions, etc.

Mille is not derived from the Latin *mille*, which has given *mil* (as *ille* gave *il*), but from the plural *millia*. As in Latin, *mille* was used for *one* thousand only, and *millia* for *many thousands;* so, in Old French, we find *mil* hommes=*one* thousand men, and deux *mille* chevaux= *two* thousand horses. This distinction between the singular (*mil*) and the plural (*mille*) disappeared at a later period, remaining, however, in the expressions where *one* thousand only is indicated, as *mil* huit cent soixante-quinze=*one* thousand eight hundred and seventy-five.— *Million* and *milliard* are derived from *mille*, with the suffixes *on* (see § 117), and *ard* (see § 104).

C.—Ordinal numeral adjectives.

206. These adjectives point out the *rank* or *place* occupied by the object. They are formed by adding the termination *-ième* to the cardinal adjectives, as—

trois =three	trois-*ième* =third
six =six	six-*ième* =sixth
sept =seven	sept-*ième* =seventh
vingt =twenty	vingt-*ième*=twentieth, etc.

When the cardinal adjective ends in *e mute*, that *e* is cut off, as—

quatre=four	quatr-*ième*=fourth
onze =eleven	onz-*ième* =eleventh
douze =twelve	douz-*ième* =twelfth.

☞ *Neuf*= nine, changes *f* into *v:*

neu*f* =nine	neu*vième* =ninth.

Cinq= five, adds *u* before the termination *-ième:*

cinq =five	cinq*uième* =fifth.

This suffix *-ième* (*iesme* in Old French) is derived from the Latin *-esimus*, which was also used to form ordinal numbers:

vicesimus =vingtième=*twentieth*
tricesimus =trentième =*thirtieth*, etc.

Centésimus contracted, according to the rule of the Latin accent (see § 51), gave *centés'mus*, hence *centiesme*, and lastly *centième* (hundredth).

As for the change of *neuf* into neuvième (as in neuve from *neuf*), see § 157.

The Latin ordinal numbers were originally adopted by the French:

From *primus* (premier =*first*), they made *prime* or *premier*
,, *secundus* (deuxième =*second*), ,, *second*
,, *tertius* (troisième =*third*), ,, *tiers*
,, *quartus* (quatrième =*fourth*), ,, *quart*
,, *quintus* (cinquième =*fifth*), ,, *quint*.

In the eleventh century people used to say: *le tiers homme*=the third man; *la quart lieue*=the fourth league, etc.—Later on they followed another system, and instead of borrowing ordinal adjectives from the Latin, they added the ending *-ième* to their own cardinal numbers (*deux*ième, *trois*ième, *quatr*ième, etc.). Towards the end of the Middle Ages the old system was superseded by the new one, with the exception of *premier*=first, and *second*=second, which remained parallelly with *deuxième*. *Prime, tiers, quart, quint*, etc., have disappeared, and only remain in some few locutions, as: *le* tiers *état* =the third estate, the Commons; *le* tiers *parti*=the third party; *Charles*-Quint=Charles *the* Fifth (Emperor of Germany and King of Spain, the great rival of Francis the First); *Sixte*-Quint = Pope Sixtus Quintus (the fifth); *de* prime-*abord*=at first; *de* prime *saut*=spontaneously. La Fontaine has said, "Un *quart* voleur survint"=a fourth thief happened to come, for "un *quatrième* . . ."; and the *tiers* for *troisième* is still used in "l'indiscrétion d'un *tiers*"= the indiscretion of a third person.

207. EXCEPTION.—The first ordinal number, which ought to be *un*ième (derived from *un*, as *deuxième* from *deux*, *troisième* from *trois*), is replaced by *premier*. However, *unième* is used in making compound numbers with the decades: *vingt-unième*= twenty-first; *trente-unième* = thirty-first. *Second* is also substituted to *deuxième*, but never in compound numbers, as "l'aîné des deux frères est brun, le *second* est blond" = the older of the two brothers is dark, the second (younger) is fair; "cet élève

est le *second* de sa classe, mais son frère est le vingt-*deuxième*" = this pupil is the second in his class, but his brother is the twenty-second.

See § 206.

208. Nouns of number, which indicate a certain quantity (as *une dizaine* = a collection of *ten*, *une centaine* = a hundred), are connected with the numeral adjectives, since they are formed by adding the termination **-aine** to the cardinal adjectives, as—

huit	=eight	huit*aine*	=eight days, a week
douze	=twelve	douz*aine*	=dozen
quinze	=fifteen	quinz*aine*	=about fifteen, a fortnight
vingt	=twenty	ving*taine*	=a score
cent	=hundred	cen*taine*	=a hundred, etc.

EXCEPT *mille* = a thousand, which makes *millier* = a collection of a thousand.

Obs. neuvaine means *a nine days' prayer* in the Roman Catholic Church.

For the suffix *-aine*, see § 103. *Millier* is an exception, because it came directly from the Latin *millarium*=a thousand, as *premier* from *primarium*=first, principal, chief.

N.B.—The following are used to indicate a person of a certain age:

quadragénaire	=forty	years	old
quinquagénaire	=fifty	,,	,,
sexagénaire	=sixty	,,	,,
septuagénaire	=seventy	,,	,,
octogénaire	=eighty	,,	,,
nonagénaire	=ninety	,,	,,
centenaire	=a hundred	,,	,,

All these are derived from the Latin accusatives: *quadragenarium*, *quinquagenarium*, *sexagenarium*, *septuagenarium*, *octogenarium*, *nonagenarium*, and *centenarium*.

209. The nouns which denote the different parts of a whole are also connected with the numeral adjectives, as—

le quart	=the fourth	*le sixième*	=the sixth
le tiers	=the third	*le huitième*	=the eighth
la moitié	=the half	*le dixième*	=the tenth, etc.

These nouns are formed by putting the definite article **le** before the **ordinal adjectives**, as—

le douzième des impôts=the twelfth of the taxes
le vingtième de notre revenu=the twentieth of our income.

EXCEPT the three following numbers:

le *tiers*=the third
le *demi* (*or* la *moitié*)=the half
le *quart*=the fourth,

which come directly from the Latin:

tertius	=tiers	=*third*
dimidium	=demi	=*half*
quartus	=quart	=*fourth*.

The others are taken from the ordinal adjectives; in the same manner the Latin said *quinta pars* (=the fifth), *sexta pars* (=the sixth), from the ordinal adjectives *quintus* (=fifth), *sextus* (=sixth), etc.

210. Lastly, among the nouns of number must be placed those which are used for **multiplication**, as—

le *double*	=double
le *triple*	=treble, threefold
le *quadruple*	=quadruple, fourfold
le *sextuple*	=sextuple, sixfold
le *décuple*	=decuple, tenfold
le *centuple*	=centuple, a hundredfold.

For all the other numbers the word *fois* (from Lat. *vices* = times) is placed *after the cardinal adjective*, as—

une fois	=once
sept fois	=seven times
huit fois	=eight times
deux cents fois	=two hundred times
mille fois	=a thousand times, etc.

The numbers *le double*, *le triple*, etc., come directly from the Latin

substantives: *duplum* (double), *triplum* (treble), *quadruplum* (quadruple), *centuplum* (centuple).

211. A comparative table of the numeral adjectives:—

CARDINAL NUMBERS.	ORDINAL NUMBERS.
N.B.—**un** is the only cardinal which takes the mark of the feminine: **une.**	N.B.—**Premier** and **second** are the only ordinals which are variable: **première, seconde.**
1. un, une	1*st.* premier, première
2. deux	2*nd.* second, —e, *or* deuxième
3. trois	3*rd.* troisième
4. quatre	4*th.* quatrième
5. cinq	5*th.* cinquième
6. six	6*th.* sixième
7. sept	7*th.* septième
8. huit	8*th.* huitième
9. neuf	9*th.* neuvième
10. dix	10*th.* dixième
11. onze	11*th.* onzième
12. douze	12*th.* douzième
13. treize	13*th.* treizième
14. quatorze	14*th.* quatorzième
15. quinze	15*th.* quinzième
16. seize	16*th.* seizième
17. dix-sept	17*th.* dix-septième
18. dix-huit	18*th.* dix-huitième
19. dix-neuf	19*th.* dix-neuvième
20. vingt	20*th.* vingtième
21. vingt et un	21*st.* vingt et unième
22. vint-deux	22*nd.* vingt-deuxième
23. vingt-trois	23*rd.* vingt-troisième
24. vingt-quatre	24*th.* vingt-quatrième
25. vingt-cinq	25*th.* vingt-cinquième
26. vingt-six	26*th.* vingt-sixième
27. vingt-sept	27*th.* vingt-septième
28. vingt-huit	28*th.* vingt-huitième
29. vingt-neuf	29*th.* vingt-neuvième
30. trente	30*th.* trentième
31. trente et un, etc.	31*st.* trente et unième, etc.
40. quarante	40*th.* quarantième

CARDINAL NUMBERS (*continued*).	ORDINAL NUMBERS (*continued*).
41. quarante et un, etc.	41*st.* quarante et unième, etc.
50. cinquante	50*th.* cinquantième
51. cinquante et un, etc.	51*st.* cinquante et unième, etc.
60. soixante	60*th.* soixantième
61. soixante et un, etc.	61*st.* soixante et unième, etc.
70. soixante-dix	70*th.* soixante-dixième
71. soixante et onze	71*st.* soixante et onzième
72. soixante-douze	72*nd.* soixante-douzième
73. soixante-treize	73*rd.* soixante-treizième
74. soixante-quatorze	74*th.* soixante-quatorzième
75. soixante-quinze	75*th.* soixante-quinzième
76. soixante-seize	76*th.* soixante-seizième
77. soixante-dix-sept	77*th.* soixante-dix-septième
78. soixante-dix-huit	78*th.* soixante-dix-huitième
79. soixante-dix-neuf	79*th.* soixante-dix-neuvième
80. quatre-vingts*	80*th.* quatre-vingtième
81. quatre-vingt-un, etc.	81*st.* quatre-vingt-unième, etc.
90. quatre-vingt-dix	90*th.* quatre-vingt-dixième
91. quatre-vingt-onze	91*st.* quatre-vingt-onzième
92. quatre-vingt-douze	92*nd.* quatre-vingt-douzième
93. quatre-vingt-treize	93*rd.* quatre-vingt-treizième
94. quatre-vingt-quatorze	94*th.* quatre-vingt-quatorzième
95. quatre-vingt-quinze	95*th.* quatre-vingt-quinzième
96. quatre-vingt-seize	96*th.* quatre-vingt-seizième
97. quatre-vingt-dix-sept	97*th.* quatre-vingt-dix-septième
98. quatre-vingt-dix-huit	98*th.* quatre-vingt-dix-huitième
99. quatre-vingt-dix-neuf	99*th.* quatre-vingt-dix-neuvième
100. cent	100*th.* centième
101. cent un	101*st.* cent-unième
102. cent deux	102*nd* cent-deuxième
103. cent trois	103*rd.* cent-troisième
200. deux cents*	200*th.* deux-centième
300. trois cents*, etc.	300*th.* trois-centième, etc.
1000. mille	1000*th.* millième
5000. cinq mille	5000*th.* cinq millième
10,000. dix mille	10,000*th.* dix millième
1,000,000. million	1,0000,00*th.* millionième.

* See Syntax, Chapter IV.

SECTION VII.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES.

212. Possessive adjectives are placed before the noun to point out *to whom the object belongs :*

mon *cheval* =my horse—*i.e.*, the horse which belongs to me
ton *chapeau*=thy hat —*i.e.*, the hat „ „ thee
son *bâton* =his stick—*i.e.*, the stick „ „ him.

213. The possessive adjectives are—

A. When the object belongs to one person only (*mon* chien = *my* dog) :

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
MASC.	FEM.	(FOR BOTH GENDERS.)
mon	*ma*	*mes* = my
ton	*ta*	*tes* = thy
son	*sa*	*ses* = his, her, its.

B. When the object belongs to several persons at the same time (*notre* chien = *our* dog; *nos* chevaux = *our* horses) :

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
(FOR BOTH GENDERS.)	(FOR BOTH GENDERS.)
notre	*nos* =our
votre	*vos* =your
leur	*leurs* =their.

Mon, ton, son,—ma, ta, sa,—mes, tes, ses, come respectively from the Latin possessive pronouns *meum*=my *or* mine, *tuum*=thy *or* thine, *suum*=his ;—*meam, tuam, suam ;—meos, tuos, suos.*

In the same way *notre* is derived from the Latin *nostrum*=our,—*votre* from the archaic form *vostrum*=your (found in the poet Ennius). *Nos* and *vos* come from the Latin *nostros* and *vostros* (for *vestros*) by shortening successively *nostros* into *nostrs*, *nostrs* into *nots*, then *noz*, and finally *nos*, etc. *Leur*, in Old French *lor*, is derived from the Latin *illorum*=of them. *Illorum* gave *leur*, just as *illam* gave *la*, *illas* =*les*, by dropping *il*, and by changing *o* into *eu* (as in honn*eur*, from honorem=honour, lab*eur* from laborem=work (see § 17) ; the etymological meaning of "*leur* cheval" is therefore "le cheval *d'eux*"= the horse of them. In the Middle Ages *leur* was *invariable : leur*

frère (their brother), *leur* sœur (their sister), *leur* enfants (their children).

In Modern French it takes, by analogy, an **s** *in the plural*, but *never changes for the feminine: leurs* enfants=their children; but never: leur*s* sœur=their sister.

214. The masculine forms *mon, ton, son* are placed before feminine nouns beginning with a vowel or *h mute*, instead of the feminine *ma, ta, sa*, in order to prevent the hiatus which the meeting of two vowels would produce; thus we must say:

mon *âme*	=my soul,	instead of *ma*-*âme*
ton *épée*	=thy sword,	„ *ta*-*épée*
son *humeur*	=his *or* her temper,	„ *sa*-*humeur*.

In Old French *mon* was strictly kept for masculine, and *ma* for feminine nouns. Whenever *ma, ta, sa* came before a word beginning with a vowel, the *a* was elided, as it is now for the feminine definite article *la*, and people then said *m'âme, t'épée, s'amie*, just as we now say *l'âme, l'épée, l'amie*. Towards the middle of the Middle Ages the use of the masculine forms *mon, ton, son* superseded this elision. It has, however, survived in the expression *m'amour* (for *ma amour*= my love, my dear), which we find in Molière: "Allez, *m'amour*, passez chez votre notaire . . ."=Go, my dear, and call on your solicitor . . . (*Malade imaginaire*, ii., 8); and in the familiar saying "faire des *m'amours*"=to coax, to wheedle. The elision has also survived in the term of endearment *m'amie*, for *ma amie*=my love, which later on became, by corruption, *ma mie;* hence came the expressions *ta mie, sa mie*=thy, his lady-love, etc.

SECTION VIII.

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

215. Demonstrative adjectives are used to point out the person or thing spoken of:

ce *château*=this castle **ce** *héros*=this hero.

216. The demonstrative adjectives are—

ce	for the masculine singular:	**ce** *lion*	=this lion
cette	for the feminine singular:	**cette** *femme*	=this woman
ces	for the plural of both genders:	**ces** *garçons*	=these boys
		ces *filles*	=these girls.

217. cet is placed before masculine substantives beginning with a vowel or *h mute*, instead of **ce**:

cet ho*mme*=this man, not **ce ho***mme*
cet e*nfant* =this child, „ **ce** e*nfant*.

From the Latin pronoun *eccistum*=that one, came the Old French word *icest* (in the eleventh century), which later on was shortened into *cest* (as we say *ci* for *ici*), hence *cet*, whose feminine *cette* was formed like that of *net*=clean=*nette*.—*Cet* was softened into *ce*, demonstrative *adjective*, which must not be mistaken for *ce* demonstrative *pronoun* (see § 232).

218. In order to show whether the person or thing we speak of is **near** or **far** from us the adverbs **-ci** = here, and **-là** = there, are joined to the substantive by a hyphen, as—

cet enfant-**ci** est brun =*this* child (*i.e.*, close to me) is dark
cet enfant-**là** est blond=*that* child (*i.e.*, far from me) is fair.

-ci is the abridgment of *ici*, adverb of place. For the origin of *ici* and *là*, see Chapter VII.

SECTION IX.

INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES.

219. Indefinite adjectives denote that the noun is used in a vague and general manner, as: **aucune** *lettre n'est arrivée*= *no* letter has arrived; **quelque** *malheur nous menace* = *some* misfortune threatens us.

220. These adjectives are twelve in number:

1. **Aucun** (fem. **aucune**) = any; no, none. (See § 219.)

This word, spelt *alqun* in the twelfth century, and *alcun* in the thirteenth, is compounded of *alques* and *un*, just as *chacun*=each one,

comes from *chaque un*, and *quelqu'un* = some one, from *quelque un*. The Latin *aliquis* gave the Old French word *alque :* aliqui venerunt= *alque vinrent* = some came.—*Alque* is then the equivalent of *quelque*, and *alqun* (*alqu'un*) that of *quelqu'un*. The history and etymology of *aucun* show that this word is essentially affirmative in its meaning : "Avez-vous entendu *aucun* discours qui vous fît croire ?" = Have you heard anything which might make you believe ?—"Allez au bord de la mer attendre les vaisseaux, et si vous en voyez *aucuns*, revenez me le dire" = Go to the shore and look (wait) for the ships, and if you see some (any), come back and tell me.—"Phèdre était si succinct qu'*aucuns* l'en ont blâmé" (La Fontaine, *Fables*, vi., 1) = Phedrus was so concise that some have blamed him for it.—*Aucun* becomes negative when accompanied by *ne :* "J'en attendais trois, *aucun* ne vint" = I expected three (of them), none came.—But it must not be forgotten that *aucun* is in itself and properly affirmative, and means *quelqu'un* = some one.

2. **Autre** = other, another : "J'ai acheté une *autre* montre" = I have bought another watch.

Autre, in Old French *altre*, from the Latin *alter*. Just as *celui* was the complement of *cil*, *nullui* that of *nul*, and *cettui* that of *cet*, so also *autrui* (which means properly *de l'autre* = of the other) was the complement of *autre*. In Old French *autrui* was not preceded by the article *de l'* or *d'un ;* people said *le cheval autrui*, or rather *l'autrui cheval* = alterius equus, *for* "le cheval d'un autre" = the horse of another. In the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*, we find still this old Chancery term : "Sauf notre droit et *l'autrui*" (i.e., *celui d'autrui*) = Except our right and that of others.

3. **Certain** = some, some one, a certain . . . : "*Certain* enfant qui sentait son collége" . . . (La Fontaine, *Fables*, ix., 5) = a boy who smacked of his school.

N.B.—**Certain** is an indefinite adjective when it means *un*, *quelque* = one, some one, as : *certain homme* = a man, some man. But when it means *sûr* = sure, it is a qualificative adjective, as *J'en suis certain* = I am sure of it.

Certain is derived from the Latin *certus*, with the help of the suffix *-ain*.

4. **Chaque** = each : "*Chaque* jour est précieux" = every day is precious.

The successive forms of this word have been *chasque* in the thirteenth century, and at an earlier date *chesque*, which is, in fact, the Latin *quisque*, which gave at first *quesque* and afterwards *chesque*. In the same way *chacun*, originally *chasqu'un* (which, as early as the fourteenth century, was written *chacun*), is derived from the Latin *quisque unus*.

5. **Maint** (fem. **mainte**) many: "*Maintę* fois" = many a time and oft.

Maint comes from the German word *manch* = many, which in Gothic was *manags*, and in Old High German *manac*.

6. **Même** = same: "Les *mêmes* hommes sont venus" = the same men came; "J'ai vu les *mêmes* chevaux hier" = I saw the same horses yesterday.

N.B.—**Même**, when meaning *even*, is an adverb, and remains invariable.

Même in the sixteenth century was written *mesme*, in the thirteenth *meesme* or *meisme*, and originally in the eleventh *medesme* in the "Chanson de Roland," and *medisme* in the "Vie de St. Alexis." It is derived, as the Italian *medesimo* (same), from the common Latin *metipsimus* (found in Petronius), which is a contraction of the superlative *metipsissimus*, found in Plautus under the form of *ipsissimusmet*, meaning "tout à fait le même" = altogether the same.

7. **Nul** (fem. **nulle**) = no, none: "*Nul* homme n'est parfait" = no man is perfect; "L'homme ne trouve *nulle* part son bonheur sur la terre" = man finds happiness nowhere on earth.

Nul, from the Latin *nullus*, had for its accusative *nullui*, just as *cel*, *cet*, *autre*, had for their objectives *celui*, *cettui*, *autrui*.

8. **Plusieurs** = several: "*Plusieurs* historiens ont raconté ce fait" = several historians have related this fact.

Plusieurs comes from the Low Latin *pluriores*, derived from *plures*.

9. **Quelconque** = whatever, whatsoever: "Deux points *quelconques* étant donnés" = two points whatsoever being given.

Quelconque comes from the Latin *qualecunque*.

10. **Quelque** = some: "Quelques livres" = some books.

Quelque comes from the Latin *qualisquam*.

11. **Tel** (fem. **telle**) = such: "Une *telle* méchanceté est incroyable" = such wickedness is incredible; "Il n'y a pas de *tels* animaux" = there are no such animals.

Tel comes from the Latin *talis*.

12. **Tout** (pl. masc. **tous**, fem. sing. **toute**) = all, every: "Tout citoyen doit servir son pays" (Lamotte) = every citizen must serve his country...; "Tous les hommes sont frères" = all men are brethren; etc.

Tout (in Old French *tot*) comes from the Latin *totus*.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE PRONOUN.

221. The **pronoun** is a word which takes the place of the noun. In the sentence "**Henri** est espiègle, mais **il** deviendra raisonnable" = Henry is frolicsome, but he will grow steady,—the word **il**, being put there instead of **Henri**, is a pronoun.

Pronom is the Latin *pronomen* (*pro* = instead of, *nomen* = noun).

222. There are five kinds of pronouns:

1. The *personal*
2. The *possessive*
3. The *demonstrative*
4. The *relative*
5. The *indefinite*.

These five classes of pronouns come directly from the Latin.

SECTION I.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

223. Personal pronouns are those which point out the persons and indicate the part they play in the speech.

In the sentence "**Je** *devine que* **tu** *viens de chez* **lui**" (=I guess you come from his house) we distinguish at once three different persons, *Je, tu, lui*, as being the actors in this little drama. These actors have different parts, which are indicated here by three distinct words: the *first* part (**Je**=I) is that of the actor *who speaks;* the *second* (*tu*=thou), that of the actor *spoken to;* and the *third* (*lui*=him), that of the actor *spoken of.*

These three *characters*, or rather *parts*, are called **personnes**= **persons** (from the Latin [*dramatis*] *personæ*), and represented by the **personal pronouns**, which point out beings *by the part they act in* that short piece called a *sentence.*

224. The personal pronouns are:—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st Person	*Je* = I *me* = me / to me *moi* = me / to me	*nous* = we / us / to us — of both genders.
2nd Person	*tu* = thou *te* = thee / to thee *toi* = thee / to thee	*vous* = you / to you — of both genders.
3rd Person	*il* = he *elle* = she, her *lui* = him / to him / to her *le* = him *la* = her, it	*ils* = them (masc). *elles* = they, them (fem.) *eux* = them (masc.) *leur* = to them (both genders).

se = himself, herself, itself, oneself, themselves, etc.
soi = himself, herself, itself, oneself, themselves.
en = of *or* from him, her, it, them, etc.
y = to *or* at him, her, it, them, etc.

225. All these pronouns are used for both genders, with the exception of:

> *il, ils, eux,* which are reserved for the masculine; and
> *elle, la, elles,* which are reserved for the feminine.

All these pronouns come directly from the Latin; the first two persons are derived from the corresponding persons in Latin, but the different forms of the third person have been borrowed from the Latin demonstrative pronouns.

Je, which was *jo* in the twelfth century, *io* in the tenth, *io* and *eo* in the ninth in the famous oaths of Strasburg, A.D. 842 (see § 6), is derived from the Latin *ego*. By the loss of *g*, e(*g*)o becomes *eo*, just as li(*g*)are becomes *lier* (=to tie, bind): *eo* is softened into *io*, as *leo*nem=li*on* (=lion): *io* became afterwards *jo*, as Dib*io*nem became Di*jon*. Lastly, *jo*, about the middle of the twelfth century, was weakened into *je*, just as the Old French *eo* and *ço*, and *lo* are softened into *ce*, *le* (see § 143).—*Me, te, se* come from the Latin *me, te, se*, enclitic—that is to say, joined to the preceding word, and consequently unaccented (see § 51).—*Moi* is derived from *mi*, contracted from *mihi* (=to me), in the same way as *nihil* (=nothing) is contracted into *nil*; and *mi* gave *moi*, just as *fidem, pirum, nigrum* (see § 17) gave *foi* (=faith), *poire* (=pear), *noir* (=black).

Tu is the Latin *tu*; *toi* and *soi* come from the Latin *tibi* and *sibi*; *nous* and *vous*, from *nos* and *vos*.

The French language abandoned the pronoun of the third person in Latin *is* (he), *ea* (she), doubtless on account of its shortness, and borrowed its third person from the demonstrative pronoun *ille, illa, illud*. *Ille* has become *il*, just as *mille* gave *mil*; *illa* gave *elle*, as ax*illa* aiss*elle*=armpit; the plural *illi* gave the Old French *il*, to which *s* has been added in modern times, =*ils*; *elles* comes from *illas*; *eux* from *illos*, as chev*eux* (hair) from cap*illos*.—For the origin of *le, la, les*, see § 143.—*Lui* is the Latin *illihuic* (to this one), which, contracted into *illuic*, is found under the form of *illui* in a Roman inscription belonging to the Imperial epoch, and published by Muratori. *Illui* became l*ui*, as *illam* became *la*, and *illorum*=*leur*, by losing the first syllable.

When *le* does not designate persons, but things, as in "La rivière débordera, je le prévois" (=the river will overflow, I foresee it), it means *cela* (=that, it), and is about the only trace of the neuter gender left in French. This explains why to the questions "Êtes-vous la mère de cet enfant?" (=are you the mother of this child?) or "Êtes-vous la malade?" (=are you the invalid lady?), we must

give as answer "Je **la** suis" (=I am [her])—that is to say, "Je suis **la personne** dont vous parlez" (=I am the person you speak of); whilst to the questions "Êtes-vous mère?" (=are you a mother?)—or "Êtes-vous malade?" (=are you ill?), we must reply "Je **le** suis" (=I am [it])—that is to say "Je suis **cela**" (=I am [it, that]), "C'est ce que je suis" (=it is what I am), etc.

REMARK.—These pronouns are divided into two classes:

A. Those which are always placed **before the verb and without a preposition**, as: *me, te, se, le, la, les, leur*: *il* **me** *donne un crayon* = he gives me a pencil; *il* **te** *défend* = he defends thee; *il* **se** *vante* = he praises himself; *nous* **leur** disons = we tell them; etc.

B. Those which are always placed **after the verb and preceded by a preposition**, as: *moi, toi, lui, soi, eux, elles*: *il s'adresse* **à moi** = he applies to me; *il s'est vanté* **à toi** = he boasted to thee; *nous imposons* **à vous** *et à vos amis...* = we order you and your friends to...; etc.

☞ **Moi, toi,** and **lui** are used instead of *me, te, le,* or *la,* as direct or indirect objects, when placed after a verb conjugated *affirmatively,* and in the *imperative,* as—

Donnez-**moi** cette plume = give me this pen;
Promène-**toi** dans le jardin = walk (thou) in the garden
Prêtez-**lui** votre couteau = lend him your knife; etc.

EXCEPT when the personal pronoun is followed by the pronoun **en**: *Voilà de belles pêches; donnez*-**m'en** *quelques-unes* = here are some fine peaches; give me some.

Moi, toi, lui, elle are also used—(*a*) after **c'est** *or* **ce sont** = it is: *c'est* **moi** = it is I; *ce sont* **eux** = it is they; and (*b*) after **prepositions**: *devant moi* = before me; *après toi* = after thee; *selon lui* = according to him.

In Latin *ego* and *tu* were always *subjects* of the verb, whilst *me* and *te* were *objects.* The same distinction existed in Old French, and was strictly observed, so that *je, tu, il, elle* were used for the subject,—*me, te, le, la* for the direct object,—and *moi, toi, lui, soi* for the indirect object. Whilst in Modern French people say, by a strange mistake, "**moi** *qui lis*" = I who read; "**toi** *qui chantes*" = thou who singest; "**lui** *qui vient*" = he who comes;—thus using the object

for the subject;—Old French said correctly, "**je** *qui lis*" = ego qui lego; "**tu** *qui chantes*" = tu qui cantas; "**il** *qui vient*" = ille qui vient; etc. It was not till the beginning of the fourteenth century that the distinction between subject and object began to grow dim, and confusion arose; now there are no longer any forms peculiar to the subject, since in certain cases it is expressed by *je, tu, il, elle*, and in others by *moi, toi, lui*. A fragment of the ancient use has remained in the law and commercial term, "*je*, soussigné, déclare = I, undersigned, declare.

226. En is used for **de** *followed by a personal pronoun* (*de lui* = of him; *d'elle* = of her; *d'eux* = of them, etc.): "J'aime cet enfant et j'**en** suis aimé" = I love this child and I am loved by him; "J'ai vu Paris et j'**en** admire les monuments" = I have seen Paris and I admire its monuments.

Leur (for persons) and **y** (for things) are used instead of *à followed by a personal pronoun*. Instead of "J'ai vu les magistrats et j'ai dit à **eux**" (= I have seen the magistrates and I have told them),—or "Pensez-vous à cette affaire? Je pense à **elle** (= Do you think of that business? I do [think of it]),—we must say "J'ai vu les magistrats et je **leur** ai dit —Pensez-vous à cette affaire? J'**y** pense.

N.B.—**Leur** is a personal pronoun when it means *à eux, à elles* (= to them), and accompanies a verb. In that case it never takes the mark of the plural, as "Je **leur** ai donné un livre" = I have given them a book. It is a possessive adjective when it signifies *d'eux, d'elles* (= of them), and is placed before a substantive. It must then take the mark of the plural, as "Ces enfants ont perdu **leurs** livres" = these children have lost their books. See § 213.

En, *y*, and *leur* are in reality cases of pronouns, since *en* answers to the Latin genitive, and *leur* and *y* to the dative. For the origin of *leur*, see § 225.

En, in Old French *ent*, is derived from the Latin *indè* (thence), as souv*ent*=often, from sub*inde*.

For *y*, see Chapter VII., i., adverbs of place.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS.—A. The pronouns **le, la, les**, must not be mistaken for the definite article *le, la, les*: the former accompany always a verb, the latter a substantive: "Voici *le*

livre que je vous ai promis, **prenez-le**" = here is *the* book I promised you, take **it**.

B. In order to give more force to the expression, the adjective *même* is joined by a hyphen to the personal pronouns, as—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
moi-même = myself	**nous-mêmes** = ourselves
toi-même = thyself	**vous-mêmes** = yourselves
lui-même = himself	**eux-mêmes** } themselves.
elle-même = herself	**elles-mêmes** }

soi-même = oneself, himself, herself, &c.

SECTION II.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

227. Possessive pronouns take the place of the noun and at the same time denote possession: "*Mon chapeau* est meilleur que **le vôtre**" (= my hat is better than yours); *ton cheval* est plus noir que **le sien** (= thy horse is blacker than his). "**Le vôtre, le sien** are possessive pronouns—*pronouns*, because they are used to avoid the repetition of the noun which represents the object, and *possessive*, because they indicate, at the same time, to whom the object belongs.

In Latin the same word is used both as adjective and pronoun; for instance, *meus* means both *mon* (my) and *le mien* (mine).

228. When one object possessed by **only one** person is spoken of (as *mon chapeau est* meilleur que **le tien**), the possessive pronouns are:

		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
1st Person	Masc.	*le mien* ...	*les miens* ...	mine
	Fem.	*la mienne* ...	*les miennes* ...	
2nd Person	Masc.	*le tien* ...	*les tiens* ...	thine
	Fem.	*la tienne* ...	*les tiennes* ...	
3rd Person	Masc.	*le sien* ...	*les siens* ...	his, its
	Fem.	*la sienne* ...	*les siennes* ...	hers, its.

Mien, tien, sien are softened forms of *mon, ton, son.* In the Middle Ages the pronouns *mien, tien, sien* could be used as adjectives—that is to say, placed between the article and the noun of the possessed object: people said indiscriminately either *mon frère* (=my brother), *ton vassal* (=thy vassal), or *le* **mien** *frère, le* **tien** *vassal,* etc. This rule soon disappeared, but some remains of it are still found in the modern expressions: *un* **mien** *cousin* (=a cousin of mine), *le* **tien** *propre* (=thine own), *une* **sienne** *tante* (=an aunt of his), etc.

229. When an object possessed by **several** persons at the same time is spoken of (as: leur cheval est moins beau que **le nôtre** = their horse is not so fine as ours), the possessive pronouns are:

		SINGULAR.	PLURAL	
1st Person	Masc.	*le nôtre*	*les nôtres*	ours
	Fem.	*la nôtre*		
2nd Person	Masc.	*le vôtre*	*les vôtres*	yours
	Fem.	*la vôtre*		
3rd Person	Masc.	*le leur*	*les leurs*	theirs.
	Fem.	*la leur*		

N.B.—The article *le* preceding these pronouns follows the rule of contraction (see § 146), as—

du mien = of mine *au* mien, *aux* miens = to mine
du nôtre = of ours *au* nôtre, *aux* nôtres = to ours; &c.

For the etymology of *nôtre, vôtre, leur,* see § 213.—In the possessive adjectives *notre, votre, o* is short (see § 18), whilst in the pronouns *nôtre, vôtre* it is long. How is that? From the Latin *nostrum, vostrum* were derived the Old French *nostre, vostre,* which, by cutting off *s,* became regularly *nôtre, vôtre,* just as *teste, beste, tempeste, apostre* became *tête* (=head), *bête* (=beast), *tempête* (=tempest), *apôtre* (=apostle).—*Nôtre* and *vôtre* are therefore the real forms, but they have been made short when they immediately came before a noun on which naturally fell the tonic accent (see § 53); instead of saying nôtre âme, which would have been regular, without giving, however, the predominance to *one* vowel, the *o* of the adjective was made short, so that all the effort of the voice might fall on the substantive; hence, notre âme.

SECTION III.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

230. Demonstrative pronouns are used to point out the person or thing spoken of: Mon cheval est plus grand que **celui-ci** = my horse is higher than this one.

We have seen (§ 227) that, in Latin, the possessive adjectives and pronouns are the same; so also are the demonstrative adjectives and pronouns; *ille*, for instance, means both *cet* and *celui-là* (=that, that one).

231. The demonstrative pronouns are **two** in number: **Ce**, this, that, it, and **celui**, this, that.

232. Ce is a pronoun—

1° When it accompanies a verb: **Ce** *doit être son frère* = it must be his brother; *Est-***ce** *lui?* Is it he?

2° When it is placed before the pronouns *qui* (who), *que* (whom), *quoi* (what), *dont* (whose): *J'irai voir* **ce** *qui est arrivé* = I will go and see what has happened; *Je ferai* **ce** que vous me demandez = I will do what you ask me.

But placed before a noun **ce** is an adjective: *ce* livre = this book; *ce* chapeau = that hat.

Ce, in Old French *ço*, and originally *içe*, is derived from the Latin *ecce hoc* = *c'est cela* = that is it. For the origin of *ce*, demonstrative adjective, see § 217.

233. Celui (sing. masc.), **celle** (sing. fem.);
ceux (plur. masc.), **celles** (plur. fem.);

Mon **cheval** *est noir*, **celui** *de mon père est blanc* = my horse is black, that of my father is white; *Voici vos* **livres** *et* **ceux** *de votre sœur* = here are your books and those of your sister; *Cet enfant a perdu sa* **grammaire** *et* **celle** *de son frère* = this child has lost his grammar and that of his brother; etc.

As the Latin *ecce hic* (this one) gave *ici* (here), so also the masculine pronoun *eccillum* (that one) gave the Old French *icel*,—the

feminine *eccillam* gave *icelle* (just as *elle* comes from *illam*),—the plural *eccillos*=*iceux* (as *illos*=*eux*, capillos=cheveux).—*Icel*, whose objective case was *icel*ui (as *autr*ui from *autre*), disappeared in the sixteenth century. And as *ici* was shortened into *ci*, so also *icelui*, *icelle*, *iceux* became *celui*, *celle*, *ceux*. However, the form *icelle* has remained in some forensic terms; Racine, in his *Plaideurs*, has said:

"Exposer à vos yeux l'idée universelle
De ma cause et des faits renfermés en *icelle*"

(= to lay before your eyes the universal idea of my cause and the facts contained therein).

234. We have seen (§ 218) that the adverb **ci** is added to the demonstrative adjective to point out an object *close to* us, and the adverb **là**, to indicate another object *far from* us. Those two adverbs are also, and for the same purpose, joined to the demonstrative pronouns **ce** (but without a hyphen): **ceci** = this; **cela** = that;—**celui** (with a hyphen) = *celui*-**ci**, *celle*-**ci**, *celui*-**là**, *celle*-**là**; *ceux*-**ci**, *ceux*-**là**, etc.

As for *ci* and *là*, see § 218.

SECTION IV.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

235. Relative pronouns are those which connect the noun or pronoun they stand for with the part of the sentence which follows them: *Le chêne* **qui** *ombrage notre cour est très-vieux* (= the oak which overshades our yard is very old); *Le livre* **que** *vous m'avez prêté est intéressant* (= the book [which] you have lent me is interesting. The words *qui* and *que* inform us that the following part of the sentence relates to the person or thing just spoken of, and they are called **relative pronouns** because they indicate the *relation* or *connection* which exists between the two members of the sentence.

236. The word represented by the relative pronoun is called the **antecedent.** In the above examples *chêne* and *livre* are the antecedents of *qui* and of *que*.

The French word *antécédent* comes from the Latin *antecedentem* (=preceding), because it is placed before the relative pronoun.

237. The relative pronouns are:

1. **qui** = who, which (applied to persons and things);
   de qui = whose, of *or* from whom * } applied to
   à qui = to whom } persons only;
2. **que** = whom, which, what (persons and things);
3. **quoi** = what (things only);
4. **dont** = whose, of *or* from whom *or* which (persons and things);
5. **lequel** = who, which, what (persons and things).

EXAMPLES.—(1) *L'homme* **qui** *est venu* = the man who came; *Voici le livre* **qui** *me plaît* = here is (this is) the book which pleases me; *La dame* **à qui** *appartient cette maison est veuve* = the lady to whom this house belongs is a widow.

(2) *Voici un jeune homme* **que** *je vous recommande* = here is a young man I recommend to you; *Allez mettre à la poste la lettre* **que** *je viens d'écrire* = go and post the letter I have just written. N.B.—The relative pronoun **que** *must always be expressed in French*, whilst in English it is generally understood.

(3) *C'est ce à* **quoi** *je pense* = it is what I am thinking of.

(4) *La petite fille* **dont** *je vous ai parlé l'autre jour est malade* = the young girl about whom I spoke to you the other day is ill; *Voici le tableau* **dont** *on parle tant* = here is the picture so much spoken of.

(5) *C'est un homme sur* **lequel** *vous pouvez compter* = he is a man on whom you can rely; *Le navire sur* **lequel** *je vais m'embarquer est un bon voilier:* the ship on which I am going to embark is a fast sailer; etc., etc.

Qui, que, quoi come respectively from the Latin *qui, quem, quid.*

* *De qui* is seldom used as a *relative* pronoun, *dont, duquel, de laquelle*, etc., being preferred.

Dont is derived from the Latin *de-unde* (whence): *unde* gave the Old French *ont*, which meant *où* (=where), as "le chemin par *ont* l'on va"=*lit.* the way by which one goes.—*Unde* joined to the preposition *de* became *dont*, which, in Old French, meant *d'où* (whence): "il me demanda *dont* je venais" (=he has asked me whence I came). —*Dont* was used in that sense up to the end of the eighteenth century:

"Rentre dans le néant *dont* je t'ai fait sortir."
—RACINE, *Bajazet.*

(=Go back to the low condition from which I took you).

"Ma vie est dans les camps *dont* vous m'avez tiré."
—VOLTAIRE.

(=My life is [*i.e.*, I can only live] in the camps from whence you called me.)

238. The relative pronouns **qui, que, quoi, dont** are **invariable**, but **lequel** is **variable**:—

	SINGULAR.	
MASC.	FEM.	
lequel	*laquelle*	= who, which, what
duquel	*de laquelle*	= of *or* from whom, which, what
auquel	*à laquelle*	= to whom, which, what.
	PLURAL.	
lesquels	*lesquelles*	= who, which, what
desquels	*desquelles*	= of whom, which, what
auxquels	*auxquelles*	= to whom, which, what.

Lequel is compounded of *le* (see § 142) and *quel* (=which), from Latin *qualis.*

REMARKS.—A. **Que** pronoun must not be mistaken for *que* adverb or *que* conjunction. *Que* is a pronoun when *lequel, laquelle, lesquels, lesquelles* can be used in its place, as: *la rose* **que** *j'ai cueillie ce matin est fanée* (=the rose I plucked this morning is faded)=**laquelle** j'ai cueillie.—*Que* is an adverb when it means *how many*, as: **que** *de belles roses j'ai cueillies!*= how many beautiful roses I have plucked! And, lastly, *que* is a conjunction when it means neither *lequel* nor *combien*, as: *J'espère* **que** *vous réussirez dans votre entreprise*=I hope (that) you will succeed in your undertaking.

B. The adverb **où** (where) is often used as a relative pronoun

instead of *lequel, laquelle, lesquels, lesquelles, preceded by a preposition*, but when speaking of things *only*, as—

"L'instant *où* nous naissons est un pas vers la mort"
—VOLTAIRE.

(= the moment *in which* we are born is a step towards death), —*où* stands here for *dans lequel*;—"La maison d'*où* je sors est à vendre" (= the house I have just left [*lit.* from which I come out] is to be sold).

N.B.—"La maison *dont* je sors" means "the house (*or* the family) from which I descend." *

239. The relative pronouns are also used in interrogative sentences, in which case they are called **interrogative pronouns**: "**Qui** êtes vous?" = who are you?—"**Que** demandez-vous?" = what do you ask for?—"À **quoi** cela est-il bon?" = what is the use of this?—"Voici deux accusés, **lequel** est coupable?" = here are two accused persons, which is the guilty one?

REMARKS.—A. Interrogative pronouns **have no antecedent**: "**Qui** est là?" = who is there? "**Que** faites-vous?" = what are you doing?

N.B.—**Qui** is used only *when speaking of persons*, **que** and **quoi** *when speaking of things.*

B. **Dont** is never used as an interrogative pronoun: "**De qui** (not *dont*) parlez-vous?" = whom are you speaking of?

C. Used as interrogative pronouns, **lequel, laquelle, lesquels, lesquelles** mark a *distinction* among several persons or things: "Voilà de bien beaux livres; **lequel** vous plaît davantage?" = here are some very handsome books; which do you like best?

D. Besides the interrogative pronouns proper there is the **interrogative adjective** *quel*, which precedes a noun or a pronoun: "**Quel** âge avez-vous?" = what is your age *or* how

* As for the personal pronouns *en* and *y*, which some grammarians place among the relative pronouns, see § 226.

old are you?—"**Quelle** heure est-il?" = **what** o'clock is it?—"J'ai des nouvelles à vous apprendre.—**Quelles** sont-elles?" = I have some news to tell you. What is it?

N.B.—In exclamation *quel...!* means *what a...!* as: **Quelle** pitié! = *what a* pity! *Observe* that the indefinite article is not used in French after *quel*.

Quel is variable:

masc. sing.: *quel*	masc. plur.: *quels*
fem. sing.: *quelle*	fem. plur.: *quelles*.

SECTION V.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

240. Indefinite pronouns denote persons or things in a general, vague, and indeterminate manner: "**Quelqu'un** est venu" = somebody came; "**On** nous l'a dit" = some one told us so; "Ne faites pas de mal à **autrui**" = do not do harm to others.

241. The indefinite pronouns are:

autrui	= other people, others	**l'un l'autre**	= one another
chacun	= every one	**l'un et l'autre**	= both
on (or **l'on**)	= people, one, they	**l'un ou l'autre**	= either
personne	= nobody	**ni l'un ni l'autre**	= neither
	quiconque = whoever		
	quelqu'un = somebody		
	rien = nothing.		

On, in the twelfth century *om*, and earlier *hom*, is simply the Latin word *homo*, and means properly "a man": "**On** lui amène son destrier" = *a man* brings him his war-horse.

At first there was no distinction between *homme* and *on*, and the word *om* was used for both meanings; thus, in the sense of *homo*, people said: "li *om* que je vis hier, est mort" = the man whom I saw yesterday is dead;—and in the sense of *dicitur*: "li *om* dit que nous devons tous mourir" = people say (it is said) that we must all die. In Modern French the first sentence would run: "*l'homme* que je vis hier . . .,

and the second: *l'on* dit que . . . Thus, **on** was originally a substantive; there is therefore nothing remarkable in its being preceded by the article (*l'on*).

For *autrui*, *chacun*, and *quelqu'un*, see § 220, and for *rien*, see Chapter VII., *Adverbs of negation*.

Quiconque is derived from the Latin *quicumque*.

242. Some **indefinite adjectives** may be used by themselves —*i.e.*, without being placed before a substantive; and are therefore considered as **indefinite pronouns**. Such are **nul, plusieurs, tout**: "**Nul** n'est irréprochable" = no one is blameless; "**Plusieurs** ont pleuré" = several shed tears; "**Tout** est perdu" = all (everything) is lost; etc.

The following adjectives may be used as pronouns: *autre, certains, nul, plusieurs, tel, tout.*

REMARKS.—A. **Certain** is an **indefinite pronoun** *in the plural* when it means "quelques-uns" = some persons, as: "Certains l'affirment" = some persons affirm this.

B. **Personne** (from Latin *persona*) is a **pronoun** (and of the *masculine* gender) when it is not accompanied by an article or an adjective, as: "**Personne** n'est venu" = no one came; "**Personne** a-t-**il** jamais parlé comme vous" = has ever one spoken like you?—In all other cases **personne** is a *feminine* **substantive**: "Cette *personne* est très-obligeante" = this person (either *man* or *woman*) is very obliging.

C. **Rien is a pronoun** when not accompanied by an article or an adjective: "Je n'ai **rien** vu" = I have not seen anything. Otherwise, it is a *masculine* **noun**: "Un songe, un **rien**, tout lui fait peur" = a dream, a trifle, everything frightens him. (La Fontaine, *Fables*, viii., 11.)

CHAPTER V.

OF THE VERB.

SECTION I.

DEFINITIONS.

1. Subject. Verb. Complement.

243. When we say *le loup mange l'agneau* (= the wolf eats the lamb), the word *mange* (eats), which indicates the action performed by the wolf, is called the **verb.** The word *loup* (wolf), which indicates the agent, is called the **subject.** The word *agneau* (lamb), which indicates the being on whom the action is performed, is called the **complement.**

The verb can likewise express a state or condition: *la maison est grande; le père est malade* (=the house is large; the father is ill). We may therefore define the verb: a word which expresses the idea of an *action* or of a *state* which can be ascribed to a person or to a thing. This incomplete definition is sufficient for the present, while waiting for the more exact one which the study of Syntax will give us.

244. The word *agneau* (lamb) is called the **complement,** because it *completes* the idea which the verb *mange* (eats) commences, by indicating what animal the wolf has eaten. There are two kinds of complements—the *direct* and the *indirect.*

245. The **direct** *complement* is that which completes the meaning of the verb in a *direct* manner—that is to say, without the aid of any other word: *il aime* son père (= he loves his father). *Son père* is a direct complement.

246. The **indirect** *complement* is that which completes *indirectly* the meaning of the verb—that is to say, with the aid of certain words, such as **à**, de, etc. (to, of, etc.), which are called **prepositions**: **il obéit** à son père, **il dépend** de son père (he

obeys his father, he depends on his father). **À** *son père*, **de** *son père*, are indirect complements.

2. Of the five different kinds of verbs.

247. The action expressed by the verb can be ascribed to a certain particular person (as *le roi*, *le père*, the king, the father), for example: *le roi aime* ses sujets, *le père veille* sur son fils (= the king loves his subjects, the father watches over his son), or it cannot be ascribed to any particular **person** or **subject** (as *il pleut*, *il neige*, *il tonne* = it rains, it snows, it thunders), in which instances there is no noun that can replace the pronoun *il* (it). The first-mentioned verbs, expressing an action which relates to one of the interlocutors, are called **personal verbs**; the last-mentioned, expressing an action which cannot be ascribed to any particular person, are called **impersonal verbs**.

248. The *personal* verbs, having a definite person as their subject, are divided into two classes, according as the subject performs or endures the action; when the subject itself performs the action, as *je bats* mon chien (= I beat my dog), the verb is called **active**; when the subject endures or suffers the action of others, as *je suis mordu* par mon chien (= I am bitten by my dog), the verb is called **passive**.

249. Whenever the subject at the same time performs and bears the action, as *je me mords*, *je me flatte* (= I bite myself, I flatter myself), the verb is called **reflective**, because the action which the subject performs is likewise *reflected* by it.

250. There are, then, three classes of personal verbs: *active* verbs, *passive* verbs, *reflective* verbs.

251. *Active* verbs present the subject to us as performing the action; but two kinds of actions can take place. The action performed by the subject may be accomplished on another *being* which receives or suffers it, as in this phrase: *le loup mange l'agneau* (= the wolf eats the lamb); the action may also find its

accomplishment *only* in the subject, as *le loup* dort, *le loup* court (=the wolf sleeps, the wolf runs). Verbs such as *manger* (to eat), which transmit the action from the subject to the complement, are for this reason called active **transitive** verbs (from the Latin *transire*, to pass over from one place to another); verbs such as *dormir*, *courir* (to sleep, to run), the action of which rests entirely in the subject, without departing from it, are called active **intransitive** verbs—that is to say, verbs which do not *transmit* the action to a complement.

252. The name alone of **active** verbs is frequently given alone to active *transitive* verbs; that of **neuter** verbs to active *intransitive* verbs.

These denominations of *active verb*, *neuter verb*, are incorrect; but their use is so ancient and so well established, that it would be difficult to give them up; we shall continue to employ them throughout this book.

The Romans called *neuter* (in Latin *neuter*, neither one nor the other) verbs, such as *courir* (to run), because those verbs were for them neither active nor passive. The Roman grammarians reserved the name of *active* only to the verb which we have called above *active transitive*—that is to say, to the verb which transmits the action from the subject to the complement.

253. It follows from the above definition that every *active* verb necessarily has a direct complement to which it transmits the action performed by the subject, and that the *absence* of this direct complement is precisely the mark of the *neuter* verb.

254. To sum up, there are in French five kinds of verbs: the verb *active*, the verb *neuter*, the *passive* verb, the *reflective* verb, and the *impersonal* verb.

3. Stem. Termination.

255. The verb is always formed of two distinct parts: 1st. A part which does not change, called the **stem** (or **root**) of the verb. 2nd. A changeable and variable part, which is called the **termi-**

nation. Thus in "je *marche*, nous *marchons*, vous *marcherez*" (= I walk, we walk, you will walk), the stem *march* expresses the action of walking; and the syllables **e, ons, erez**, which follow the stem and mark the different shades of the meaning, are the terminations.

4. Numbers.

256. Verbs, like nouns (§ 83), have two **numbers**: the singular, relating to one person and thing alone (*je* marche, *tu* lis, il mange = I walk, thou readest, he eats); the plural, when several are alluded to (*nous* lisons, *vous* marchez, *ils* finissent = we read, you walk, they finish).

5. Persons.

257. The action expressed by the verb can be performed either by the person who speaks (*je* marche, *nous* mangeons = I walk, we eat), or by the person of whom we speak (*il* lit, *ils* marchent = he reads, they walk). The French language marks these changes of persons, both in the singular and in the plural, by adding for each of them a new termination (**e, ons, ez**, etc.) to the stem of the verb. These different terminations are called in grammar the **persons** of the verb.

6. Moods.

258. When we speak of an action already performed or to be performed, we can do so in five different ways, called the five *moods* of the verb.

Mode (mood) is from the Latin *modus* (*manière* = manner).

1st. We can express ourselves either in a vague and indefinite manner, as when we say *faire*, *remplir* (to do, to fill) without specifying who *does* or *fills*, or at what time a certain person has *done* or *filled*. This vague manner has received the name of **Infinitive mood.**

From the Latin *modus* (*manière*, manner) *infinitivus* (*indéfinie* = vague).

2nd. Or in a precise manner, *indicating* that the action takes

place: *Je marche, tu lis* (I walk, thou walkest). This is called the **Indicative mood.**

From the Latin *modus* (*manière*) *indicativus* (*précise, qui indique*= precise, that indicates).

3rd. Or in an imperative manner, *ordering* the action to take place: *marchez, taisez-vous, finissez* (=walk, be quiet, finish). This is the **Imperative mood.**

From the Latin *modus* (*manière*) *imperativus* (*de commandement, qui ordonne*=of command, that orders).

4th. Or in a conditional manner—*i.e.*, that the action would take place if a certain condition was fulfilled: *je marcherais plus longtemps* **si** *j'étais mieux portant* (=I should walk for a longer time, if I were better). *Je marcherais* is in the **conditional mood.**

From the Latin *modus conditionalis*, which has the same sense.

5th. Or in a doubtful and uncertain manner, because the action depends upon another action: *je veux que tu viennes* (=I wish you to come). *Que tu viennes* is governed by the verb *je veux*, and depends on it. This is called the **subjunctive mood.**

From the Latin *modus subjunctivus* (*manière soumise à . . . dépendante de*=a manner subject to..., dependent upon).

259. To sum up, there are then in French five manners or *moods* of expressing the action pointed out by the verb: the **infinitive**, the **indicative**, the **imperative**, the **conditional**, and the **subjunctive.** These different moods are distinguished by adding for each of them a different termination to the stem of the verb.

The various moods come from the Latin, with the exception of the conditional, which is of French origin. This mood, unknown in Latin, was replaced by the imperfect of the subjunctive. Thus the Romans used *amarem* where the French would say either *j'aimasse* or *j'aimerais* (that I might love, I should love).

7. Tenses.

260. The *moods*, the *numbers*, and the *persons* have taught us how and by whom the action is performed; it remains that we should ascertain at what *time*, at what *moment* it takes place. Either the action occurs at the time when we are speaking (as *je lis* = I read), or was already performed at the time when we are speaking (*j'ai lu* ce matin = I have read this morning), or will be performed at some future time (*je lirai* demain = I shall read to-morrow). These three epochs of time are called the *present*, the *past*, and the *future*. The French language designates each of them by a particular form of the verb that is called **tense**.

For the details of the different tenses of the verb, see §§ 268—290.

261. The difference of *tense* is marked either by simply adding a new termination to the stem of the verb (j'aime*rai*, j'aim*ais* = I shall love, I loved), and then the tense is called **simple**; or by adding to the past participle of the verb (*aimé* = loved) another verb which precedes it (*j'ai aimé*, *j'avais aimé* = I have loved, I had loved). The nature of this verb will be explained farther on (see § 292), and the tense, thus composed of two verbs instead of one, is called a **compound tense**.

8. Conjugations.

262. The union of all the tenses of the same verb, with all their numbers and all their persons, is called **conjugation**.

263. There are in French **four** conjugations, which are distinguished by the termination of the infinitive:

The **first** conjugation ends its infinitive in **-er**, as *aim***er** = to love;

The **second** conjugation has **-ir** for the termination of the infinitive, as *fin***ir** (= to finish); and the imperfect of the indicative ends in *iss-ais*, je *fin-***iss-***ais* (= I finished).

The verbs in *ir* really include two conjugations: the one, as *finir*, the imperfect of which ends in *-issais*, as *je finissais*; the other,

as *sentir* (to feel), the imperfect of which ends in *-ais*, as *je sentais*. We give here the first of these conjugations, which includes more than *three hundred* French verbs, reserving for the chapter on irregular verbs the notice of the second conjugation in *-ir*, which includes *twenty-eight* verbs.

The **third** conjugation terminates in the infinitive in **-oir**, as *recev***oir** (= to receive);

The **fourth** conjugation has for the ending of the infinitive **-re**, as *romp***re** (= to break).

I. Of these four conjugations, the first in *-er* comes from the Latin conjugation in *are*: *am*are, *cant*are, *port*are have become *aim*er, *chant*er, *port*er (=to love, to sing, to carry), by the regular change of the Latin *a* into *e*, as in *mort*el, from *mortalis*; *n*ez from *nasus*; etc. Since the fifteenth century, scholars have introduced into this conjugation verbs in *ēre*, which ought to belong to the conjugation in *-oir* (as we shall see presently), such as *absorb*er=to absorb, from *absorb***ere**; *prohib*er=to prohibit, from *prohib***ere**; etc.

II. (A) The second conjugation in *-ir*, with the imperfect in *-issais*, was made up by the French with the help of two Latin conjugations. From the Latin verbs of the third conjugation in *escere*, such as *gemiscere*, *florescere* (the syllable *esc* marks the gradual increase of the action: thus *durescere*, durcir [to harden more and more]), *eg.*, verbs which make in the indicative present *gem***isco** (*je gémis*=I moan), *flor***esco** (*je fleur***is**=I flourish), the French have borrowed the termination *esco*, *isco* (changing it into *is*), in consequence of the necessity of strengthening the too short forms of the classical Latin, and of the tendency to lengthen, which we have often noticed. Hence the form *is*, which we find in all the simple tenses of this conjugation (*fleur*-**is**, *fleur*-**iss**-*ais*, *fleur*-**iss**-*e*, *fleur*-**iss**-*ant*). But the French language, whilst borrowing from these verbs the form *esco*, *isco*, has rejected, on the other hand, the infinitive *éscère*, and preferred the infinitive in *īre* of the fourth Latin conjugation: thus we are able to account for that hybrid conjugation, whose infinitive is borrowed from the fourth Latin conjugation, and the other simple tenses from the third.

(B) The verbs in *-ir*, with the imperfect in *-ais*, are the pure and simple reproduction of the regular Latin conjugation in *ire*: *ven*ire, *ven*ir=to come; *vénio*, je *viens*=I come; etc.

III. The third conjugation in *-oir* comes from the second Latin conjugation in *ēre*: *deb***ere**, *hab***ere** have become *dev***oir** and *av***oir** by the

regular change of the Latin *ē* into *oi* (as in *roi*=king, from *rēgem*, *loi*=law, from *lēgem*, *toile*=linen, from *tēla*, etc....).

IV. The fourth conjugation in *-re* comes from the third Latin conjugation in *ĕre:* following the rule of the Latin accent (see § 51) *defĕndĕre* has been contracted into *defénd're*, from whence *défendre;* and consequently *ĕre* is reduced to *re* in French.

264. The French language includes (if we take as an authority the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*), about 4000 simple verbs (leaving out the compound ones); of these, 3600 end in **-er**; 330 in **-ir** (with the imperfect in *-issais*): 28 in **-ir** (with the imperfect in *-ais*); 10 verbs in **-oir**; and 50 verbs in **-re**. We thus see that the first conjugation in **-er** includes in itself nine-tenths of the French verbs.

265. As we shall see (Section X.), the French language creates new verbs with the help of substantives and adjectives, by adding to the former the termination *-er: fête, fêter*; *gant, ganter*; *lard, larder*; *camp, camper* (=holiday, to make holiday; glove, to put on one's gloves; bacon, to lard; camp, to camp); and to the latter the termination *-ir: maigre, maigrir*; *cher, chérir*; *bleu, bleuir*; *pâle, pâlir* (=thin, to become thin; dear, to cherish; blue, to make blue; pale, to become pale).

The first conjugation in *-er* forms new verbs with *substantives*, the second conjugation in *-ir* with *adjectives*. We may, then, designate them as *living* conjugations (des conjugations *vivantes*) inasmuch as they are constantly used for the purpose of new formations.

266. The conjugations in *-oir*, *-re* (and the 2nd in *-ir*) are on the contrary incapable of being used to form new verbs, and, since the origin of their language, the French have not added one *single verb* in *-oir* or in *-re* to the small number of those bequeathed by the Latin language. These two conjugations, which have remained, so to say, barren, can with good reason be called *dead* conjugations (des conjugations *mortes*).

267. This simple distinction of the conjugations into *dead*

and *living* shows us at once why 3900 French verbs (out of 4000) are in *-er* and in *-ir*, whilst the three other conjugations put together only include about 90 verbs.

SECTION II.

FORMATION OF SIMPLE TENSES.

268. The simple tenses, as we have already said (§ 261), are those which are formed by simply adding a termination to the stem of the verb.

They are eleven in number—namely, four in the **indicative** (the *present*, the *imperfect*, the *preterite*, the *future*), one for the **conditional** (the *simple conditional*), one for the **imperative** (the *present*) two for the **subjunctive** (the *present* and the *imperfect*), one for the **infinitive** (the *present*), and two for the **participle** (the *present* and the *past*).

I. Present of the indicative.

269. The present of the indicative shows that the thing is, or is being done at the time when we speak, as *je chante* (=I sing); it is formed in the following manner:—

	I	II	III	IV
		SING.		
	(*I sing*)	(*I finish*)	(*I receive*)	(*I break*)
1.	Je chant **e**	fin *i* **s**	reç **ois**	romp **s**
2.	Tu chant **es**	fin *i* **s**	reç **ois**	romp **s**
3.	Il chant **e**	fin *i* **t**	reç **oit**	romp **t.**
		PLUR.		
1.	Nous chant **ons**	fin *iss* **ons**	recev **ons**	romp **ons**
2.	Vous chant **ez**	fin *iss* **ez**	recev **ez**	romp **ez**
3.	Ils chant **ent**	fin *iss* **ent**	reçoiv **ent**	romp **ent.**

270. Notice that in the first person the verbs in *-er* do not take an *s* (je chante), while the other conjugations do (je finis, je romps).

This exception is a vestige of the Old French language; the first person formerly never took an *s*: people wrote j'*aime*, je *voi*, je *rend*

(=I love, I see, I restore); towards the end of the Middle Ages an *s* was added, by analogy with the *s* of the second person (tu *chantes*, tu *lis*, tu *vois*=thou singest, thou readest, thou seest); but the first conjugation escaped this assimilation, and even in the case of the other conjugations the forms without *s* still remained for a long time in the language of poetry: thus we find in the seventeenth century je *voi*, je *li*, je *croi* (La Fontaine, Molière, Corneille); in the eighteenth century Voltaire says in *Alzire*: "*La mort a respecté les jours que je te* doi" (=Death has respected the days that I owe to you).

The French language did not originally possess an *s*, because the first person never took an *s* in Latin: *amo*, j'aime,—*credo*, je croi,—*reddo*, je rend, on the other hand this *s* was a distinctive characteristic of the second person: *amas*, tu aimes,—*credis*, tu crois,—*reddis*, tu rends, etc. The modern final *s* of the first person singular is, therefore, contrary to etymology.

271. In the third person all the conjugations have a *t* (il *finit*, il *rompt* = he finishes, he breaks), with the exception of the first (il *aime* = he loves).

In the fourth conjugation, verbs such as *rendre*, *vendre*, etc. (=to render, to sell, etc.), leave out this *t*, because of the *d* belonging to the stem (il *rend*, il *vend*, instead of il *rendt*, il *vendt*). In the first conjugation the Old French took a *t*, and said il *aimet*, as we say il *finit*, il *rompt*. Naturally *et* in "il *aimet*" was mute, as *ent* in "ils *aiment*"; used interrogatively (*aiment-ils ?*) *il aimet* became *aimet-il ?*

Later on the *t* of *il aimet* disappeared (because it was mute), and the expression became *il aime:* but *t* persisted in the interrogative form (as being sonorous and euphonious); only the origin and reason of this letter was soon forgotten: people separated it by a hyphen from the body of the word of which it formed a part, and instead of the old *aimet-il ?* the French have had, since the sixteenth century, *aime-t-il ?* To this confusion is owed what is called the *euphonic t.*

In Latin the *t* was the characteristic letter of the third person: *videt*, il voit (he sees),—*legit*, il lit (he reads), and consequently *amat*, il aimet; we see therefore that this *t* of the Old French was regular and founded on etymology.

272. The four conjugations form all their plurals in the same

way : **ons, ez, ent.** Notice, however, that the conjugation in *-ir* places before these terminations the particle *-iss* (*fin*-**iss**-*ons*, *fin*-**iss**-*ez*, *fin*-**iss**-*ent*) the origin of which we have seen in § 263.

273. Notice also that *-ent* (ils *chant*-**ent**, *finiss*-**ent**, *reçoiv*-**ent**, *rend*-**ent**) is mute in these verbal terminations, instead of being sonorous and accentuated (as in *souv*-**ent** = often ; *auv*-**ent** = a pent-house ; *ary*-**ent** = silver, *or* money).

Chant-**ons**, *chant*-**ez**, *chant*-**ent** come from the Latin *cant*-**amus**, *cant*-**atis**, *cant*-**ant**. When once these three terminations were created for the first conjugation, the French language employed them to form the plural of all the others, without having recourse, for these, to the corresponding Latin conjugations.

Ent is always mute in the plural terminations of verbs, because in Latin *-ant* (am-*ant*) was also unaccentuated, and, as we have seen in § 51, every unaccentuated Latin vowel, at the end of the word, either becomes mute or disappears.

II.—Imperfect.

274. The imperfect shows that a thing was, or that something was done at the same time as something else: *Il* **lisait** *lorsque j'entrai* (=he was reading when I came in).

The imperfect thus expresses an action actually performed, but which was not so when another action took place.

It expresses also *habitual* or *repeated actions* and *customs :* "Quand j'étais à la campagne, je me promenais tous les les jours"=when I was in the country, *I used to* walk every day; "Les Romains brûlaient leurs morts"=the Romans *used to* burn their dead ; etc.

275. The imperfect of the indicative is thus formed:

	I	II	III	IV
		SING.		
	(*I sang* or *was singing*)	(*I finished* or *was finishing*)	(*I received* or *was receiving*)	(*I broke* or *was breaking*)
1.	Je chant **ais**	fin *iss* **ais**	recev **ais**	romp **ais**
2.	Tu chant **ais**	fin *iss* **ais**	recev **ais**	romp **ais**
3.	Il chant **ait**	fin *iss* **ait**	recev **ait**	romp **ait**.
		PLUR.		
1.	Nous chant **ions**	fin *iss* **ions**	recev **ions**	romp **ions**
2.	Vous chant **iez**	fin *iss* **iez**	recev **iez**	romp **iez**
3.	Ils chant **aient**	fin *iss* **aient**	recev **aient**	romp **aient**.

We see that the imperfect is the same in all the conjugations (*-ais, -ais, -ait, -ions, -iez, -aient*), always remembering that the conjugation in *-ir* interpolates the particle *-iss* between the root and the termination : je *fin*-iss-*ais*, tu *fin*-iss-*ais*.

The termination of the Latin imperfect tense of the first conjugation *-abam* (cant-*abam*) became, by the successive change of *b* into *v*, then into *u*, *auam*, from whence the Old French *oe* (*cantabam*, *chant*oe) by the change of *au* into *o* (§ 23), and of *a* into *e* (§ 69). In the eleventh century the hiatus *oe* was softened to *oie* by the interpolation of an *i*, and chant*oe* became *chant*oie. In the sixteenth century this *oi* was transformed into *oué* (il chantouèt), and *oué* was not long in reducing itself to *é* (il chantèt), or with the spelling *ai* instead of *é* : il chant*ait*.—The second Latin conjugation (*ebam*) gave successively *eie*, then *oie*, which in its turn underwent the same treatment as the termination *oie* of the first conjugation.

This change of pronunciation of *oi* into *ai* was not, however, at first expressed by spelling, and Voltaire is the first author who wrote chant*ait*, trouv*ait*, etc. This orthographical modification was only adopted by the Academy in 1835. A century before Voltaire, in 1675, an obscure lawyer, Nicolas Bérain, had already asked for this reform.

For the *s* of the first person of the imperfect (which the Old French did not know of), see § 270.

III.—Preterite.

276. The *preterite* or past definite shows that a thing has been done at a definite time—that is to say, at a precise and determined epoch, but which has completely passed at the time when we are speaking : *Je* **chantai** *hier toute la soirée* (=I sang all last evening).

The preterite is formed as follows :

		I	II	III	IV
			SING.		
		(*I sang*)	(*I finished*)	(*I received*)	(*I broke*)
1.	Je	chant **ai**	fin **is**	reç **us**	romp **is**
2.	Tu	chant **as**	fin **is**	reç **us**	romp **is**
3.	Il	chant **a**	fin **it**	reç **ut**	romp **it**.
			PLUR.		
1.	Nous	chant **âmes**	fin **îmes**	reç **ûmes**	romp **îmes**
2	Vous	chant **âtes**	fin **îtes**	reç **ûtes**	romp **îtes**
3.	Ils	chant **èrent**	fin **irent**	reç **urent**	romp **irent.**

277. We must here remark, as we have already done above (§ 271), that the *t* exists in all the conjugations (il *ron.*pit, il *fin*it, il *reç*ut) except in the first (il *aim*a).

This form of the first conjugation is only a modification of the Old French il *aim*at, which disappeared towards the fifteenth century, still, however, remaining in the interrogative form *aimat-il ?* which later on was written *aima-t-il ?* This *t* has become, as we have already seen (§ 271), what is now called the *euphonic t.*

The past definite comes from the Latin perfect tense: *cant*avi, *chant*ai,—*cant*asti, *chant*as,—*cant*avit, first *chant*at, then *chant*a,—*cant*avimus, *chant*âmes;—*cant*ăstis, formerly *chant*astes, then *chant*âtes in the sixteenth century,—*cant*ărunt, *chant*èrent.—In the same way *fin*ivi has given *je fin*is, which was originally written without *s*, as in Latin; on the history of this *s*, see § 270.

IV.—Future simple.

278. The future simple indicates that the thing in question shall be, or shall take place: Je **chanterai** *demain* (= I shall sing to-morrow).

he future simple is formed as follows:—

	I	II	III	IV
		Sing.		
	(*I shall sing*)	(*I shall finish*)	(*I shall receive*)	(*I shall break*)
1.	Je chant *er* **ai**	fin *ir* **ai**	recev *r* **ai**	romp *r* **ai**
2.	Tu chant *er* **as**	fin *ir* **as**	recev *r* **as**	romp *r* **as**
3.	Il chant *er* **a**	fin *ir* **a**	recev *r* **a**	romp *r* **a.**
		Plur.		
1.	Nous chant *er* **ons**	fin *ir* **ons**	recev *r* **ons**	romp *r* **ons**
2.	Vous chant *er* **ez**	fin *ir* **ez**	recev *r* **ez**	romp *r* **ez**
3.	Ils chant *er* **ont**	fin *ir* **ont**	recev *r* **ont**	romp *r* **ont.**

279. It will be seen from this table that the future is formed throughout all the conjugations in the same manner—that is to say, by adding to the infinitive of the verb the indicative present of the verb *avoir* (*ai, as, a,* etc.). *Je chanter***ai** is therefore exactly equivalent to *j'***ai** *à chanter.* N.B.—The third conjugation is, however, an exception to this rule, as the termination *oir* is shortened into *r:* je recev-**r**-*ai.*

The Latin finals having become at a very early period deadened, and even disappearing altogether (we find *rosa*, *urbe*, instead of *rosam*, *urbem*, etc., in a considerable number of Roman inscriptions), illiterate people experienced much difficulty, at a certain epoch, in distinguishing the imperfect *amabat*, for instance, from the future *amabit*; the Romans, accordingly, for the sake of clearness, endeavoured to hit upon a fresh manner of forming the future; *habere*, connected with the infinitive of the verb oftenest expressed the desire to do something in a time to come (Cicero has said, "*habeo ad te scribere*" for *j'ai à t'écrire*=I have to write to you); the Roman people, expanding this tendency, composed, with the help of *habeo*, a future, which ultimately supplanted the classical one. Saint Augustine gives us *venire habet* (*il a à venir*=he has to come) for *il viendra*, and these instances of a future made up of the infinitive of the verb and the indicative present of *habere* occur repeatedly in the Latin of the *décadence* period. We thus see that the future is not, properly speaking, a *simple* tense—that is to say, a tense coming *directly* from a corresponding Latin one; but a *compound* tense made up of a verb and an auxiliary; the two constituent parts have, however, become so thoroughly soldered together at the present day, that it would be impossible to place the future amongst the compound tenses.

V.—Conditional simple.

280. The conditional simple shows that the thing would or might take place under certain conditions: Je **chanterais** *si cela m'était permis* (=I would sing, if I was allowed to do so).

The conditional simple is formed thus:—

	I	II	III	IV
		SING.		
	(*I should sing*)	(*I should finish*)	(*I should receive*)	(*I should break*)
1.	Je chant*er* **ais**	fin *ir* **ais**	recev*r* **ais**	romp*r* **ais**
2.	Tu chant*er* **ais**	fin *ir* **ais**	recev*r* **ais**	romp*r* **ais**
3.	Il chant*er* **ait**	fin *ir* **ait**	recev*r* **ait**	romp*r* **ait.**
		PLUR.		
1.	Nous chant*er* **ions**	fin *ir* **ions**	recev*r* **ions**	romp*r* **ions**
2.	Vous chant*er* **iez**	fin *ir* **iez**	recev*r* **iez**	romp*r* **iez**
3.	Ils chant*er* **aient**	fin *ir* **aient**	recev*r* **aient**	romp*r* **aient.**

281. The conditional, then, is formed (as the future) in **an**

identical manner for all the conjugations except the third—that is to say, by adding *ais*, *ais*, *ait*, *ions*, *iez*, *aient*, to the infinitive of the verb. N.B.—For the third conjugation see § 279, N.B.

282. As the future has been formed by the adjunction of the present *ai*, *as*, *a*, etc., to the infinitive of the verb, so the conditional results from the adjunction of the imperfect *avais*, *avait*, etc., to the infinitive.

VI.—Imperative.

283. The imperative, which expresses a command given by the person who speaks to the one who listens, has no first person in the singular: when one gives an order to one's self it is useless to express it. Here are the various forms of the imperative:—

No 1st person in the singular; no 3rd person in both numbers.

	I (*Sing thou*)	II (*Finish thou*)	III (*Receive thou*)	IV (*Break thou*)
Sing. 2.	Chant e	Fin is	Reç ois	Romp s
Plur. 1.	Chant ons	Fin *iss* ons	Recev ons	Romp ons
2.	Chant ez	Fin *iss* ez	Recev ez	Romp ez.

284. It will be observed that all the persons of the imperative are borrowed from the corresponding persons of the indicative present. The only exception is in the first conjugation, which has *chante* without an *s*, whilst *finis*, *reçois*, *romps*, retain the *s* of the indicative (*tu finis*, *tu reçois*, *tu romps*). But the *s* of *chante* is expressed, and reappears when the imperative is placed before a word beginning with a vowel, such as *y* or *en*: *chantes-en une partie* (= sing part of it), *vas-y voir* (= go there, and see), etc.

If *chante* takes no *s*, it is because it corresponds to the Latin imperative *canta* (chante), sing thou. In Old French, the imperative of *recevoir*, *croire* was written *reçoi*, *croi*. The *s* was added in the thirteenth century, and up to the seventeenth the imperative was written both with and without an *s*.

VII.—Subjunctive present.

235. The following are the forms of the subjunctive present for the four conjugations:—

	I	II	III	IV
		SING.		
	(*That I may sing*)	(*That I may finish*)	(*That I may receive*)	(*That I may break*)
1.	Que je chant **e**	fin **isse**	reçoiv **e**	romp **e**
2.	Que tu chant **es**	fin **isses**	reçoiv **es**	romp **es**
3.	Qu'il chant **e**	fin **isse**	reçoiv **e**	romp **e**.
		PLUR.		
1.	Que nous chant **ions**	fin **issions**	recev **ions**	romp **ions**
2.	Que vous chant **iez**	fin **issiez**	recev **iez**	romp **iez**
3.	Qu'ils chant **ent**	fin **issent**	reçoiv **ent**	romp **ent**.

The French subjunctive present is merely the Latin one: *chante* (*cant*em), *chantes* (*cant*es), *chante* (*cant*et), *chant*ions (*cant*emus), *chant*iez (*cant*etis), *chant*ent (*cant*ent). In the Old French the imperfect indicative *chantions* could be distinguished from the subjunctive *chantions*, because the former was a trissyllable (coming from *cant-a*[*b*]*amus*), whilst the latter, derived from *cantémus*, was a dissyllable.

VIII.—Subjunctive imperfect.

236. The subjunctive imperfect is formed as follows for the four conjugations:—

	I	II	III	IV
		SING.		
	(*That I might sing*)	(*That I might finish*)	(*That I might receive*)	(*That I might break*)
1.	Que je chant **asse**	fin **isse**	reç **usse**	romp **isse**
2.	Que tu chant **asses**	fin **isses**	reç **usses**	romp **isses**
3.	Qu'il chant **ât**	fin **it**	reç **ût**	romp **ît**.
		PLUR.		
1.	Que nous chant **assions**	fin **issions**	reç **ussions**	romp **issions**
2.	Que vous chant **assiez**	fin **issiez**	reç **ussiez**	romp **issiez**
3.	Qu'ils chant **assent**	fin **issent**	reç **ussent**	romp **issent**.

This tense is derived from the Latin subjunctive pluperfect (*amāvissem, amāvisses, amāvisset*), but through the contract form *amāssem, amāsses, amāsset* (hence *aimasse, aimasses, aimast*, and, later, by the dropping of the *s*, *aimât*). Hence the *t* has remained in the third person singular, being supported by another consonant.

IX.—Infinitive and participles.

287. The four infinitives are, as we have already said (§ 263), *er*, *ir*, *oir*, and *re* (chan**ter**, fini**r**, recev**oir**, romp**re**).

288. Throughout all the conjugations the *present* participle ends in *ant* (chan**tant**, romp**ant**), and the second conjugation naturally prefixes *-iss* to that termination (fini**ssant**).

289. The *past* participle is *é* for the first conjugation (*chanté*), *i* for the second (*fini*), *u* for the third, *i* or *u* for the fourth (*suivi*, *reçu*, *rompu*).

We have noticed above (§ 263) the Latin origin of the infinitives. The present participle is also derived from the Latin present participle (*cant*antem, *chant*ant). The past participles in *é* and in *i* come respectively from the Latin past participle (*cant*atum *chanté*, and *fin*itum, *fini*, which are regular); as for the past participle in *u*, it can be traced to a participle in *utus*, which we find in the Latin of the *décadence* period (certain Latin texts belonging to the Merovingian epoch give *batt*utus, *battu*=beaten). On the change of *utus* into *u*, see § 187.

290. The *participle* derives its name precisely from the fact that it *participates* at once in the nature of the verb (because it marks a tense: *lisant*, ayant *lu*=reading, having read), and in that of the adjective (because it can serve to qualify a noun: un homme *charmant*=a charming man; une romance *chantée*=a ballad sung).

For further details see Book III., chap. vii.

SECTION III.

FORMATION OF THE COMPOUND TENSES.

291. We have seen that the simple tenses express (in the *present*, *past*, or *future* tenses) an action still unfinished at the epoch in question: *je* **lis** (=I read); *je* **lisais** *quand vous êtes entré* (=I was reading when you came in); *je* **lirai** *quand vous serez parti* (=I shall read when you are gone). Besides these tenses, which show that the action is not yet *finished*, there are others which present the action as already done, already finished at the time alluded to: *j'ai lu* hier (=I have read yesterday); *j'avais* déjà *lu* quand vous êtes venu (=I had already read when you came). These tenses, indicating that the action is finished, accomplished, *perfect*, are always formed of two words, viz.—the past participle of the verb (*lu*, for instance) preceded by a particular form (*j'ai*, *j'avais*, etc.) which is called **auxiliary**, because it is used as a help, an *auxiliary* to the conjugation. The tenses of this kind, formed from the auxiliary, followed by the past participle of the verb, are called **compound tenses.**

292. Each *simple* tense has for its correlative a *compound* tense presenting the action as entirely finished; thus to the *present* (*je lis*) corresponds the **perfect** (*j'ai lu*); to the *imperfect* (*je lisais*) corresponds the **pluperfect** (*j'avais lu* quand vous êtes entré=I had read when you entered); thus called because it expresses doubly the past, by marking that a certain thing was done before another one which took place in a past time; to the *preterite* or **past definite** (*je lus*) corresponds the **preterite anterior** (*j'eus lu*), marking that the circumstance occurred immediately *before* another one which took place in a past time (quand *j'eus lu* ce journal, je sortis=as soon as I had read that newspaper, I went out); to the *future* simple (*je lirai*) corresponds the **future anterior** which indicates that the thing in question will take place before another one (quand *j'aurai lu* ce journal, je sortirai=when I have read that newspaper, I shall go out); to the *conditional* simple (je lirais) corresponds the **conditional anterior** (*j'aurais*, or *j'eusse lu*), marking

that the thing would have taken place on certain conditions (*j'aurais lu*, si j'avais pu acheter des livres=I should have read, if I could have bought some books).

293. In order to form the compound tenses, the French language makes use of two auxiliaries, viz.—the verb **être** and the verb **avoir** (the former signifies properly *to exist*, and the latter *to possess*).

The greatest difference between the Latin and the French conjugation lies in this: the passive and several past tenses of the active are expressed in Latin by desinences (am*averam*, am*or*), whereas they are rendered in French by the participle of the verb, preceded by *avoir* for the active, and *être* for the passive (*j'avais aimé*, *je suis aimé*=I had loved, I am loved).

This creation of auxiliaries for purposes of conjugating, which seems at first foreign to the genius of the Latin language, was not an isolated fact or an unprecedented innovation: it existed, as a germ, in the idiom of the Romans; Cicero said: "De Cæsare satis *dictum habeo*" (for *dixi*).—"*Habebas scriptum*... nomen" (for *scripseras*.—"Quæ *habes instituta* perpolies" (for *instituisti*); and we find in Cæsar: "Vectigalia parvo pretio *redempta habet*" (for *redemit*)—"copias quas *habebat paratas*" (for *paraverat*). We thus see, in the Augustan age, side by side with the synthetic form *dixi*, *scripseram*, *paravi*, etc...., the analytic form *habeo dictum*, *habebam scriptum*, *habeo paratum*, dawning; it will one day be the form adopted by the colloquial Latin idiom and the six Romance languages; its proportion increases in the same ratio as the analytic tendencies of the language, and as early as the sixth century, Latin texts offer numerous examples of it. The same remark applies to the flexions of the passive voice: the colloquial Latin replaces them by the verb *sum* joined to the past participle (*sum amatus*, instead of *amor*). In the *recueils* of Merovingian charters the following new forms occur almost at every page: "Omnia quæ ibi *sunt aspeota*" (for *aspectantur*),—"sicut à nobis præsente tempore *est possessum*" (for *possidetur*),—"hoc volo *esse donatum*" (for *donari*),—"Quod ei nostra largitate *est concessum*" (for *conceditur*), etc....

In the same way, the new language had, in the declensions, given up the case-endings, in order to replace them by prepositions (caball-*i*, *du* cheval); so it discarded in the conjugations the verbal forms of the compound tenses, replacing them by auxiliaries; this was a natural consequence of the tendency which prompted the Latin language to pass from the synthetic to the analytic stage.

94. *Être* and *avoir* are auxiliaries only when they serve to conjugate another verb—that is to say, when they are followed by a past participle; they have no claim to that designation when they are conjugated by themselves, as: *j'ai* un cheval=I have a horse; je *suis* roi=I am king.

I. Conjugation of the auxiliary verb ÊTRE, *to be.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*I am*)	(*I have been*)
Je suis	J'ai été
Tu es	Tu as été
Il *or* elle est	Il *or* elle a été
Nous sommes	Nous avons été
Vous êtes	Vous avez été
Ils *or* elles sont	Ils *or* elles ont été.
IMPERFECT.	**PLUPERFECT**
(*I was*)	(*I had been*)
J'étais	J'avais été
Tu étais	Tu avais été
Il *or* elle était	Il *or* elle avait été
Nous étions	Nous avions été
Vous éties	Vous aviez été
Ils *or* elles étaient	Ils *or* elles avaient été.
PAST DEFINITE.	**PAST ANTERIOR.**
(*I was*)	(*I had been*)
Je fus	J'eus été
Tu fus	Tu eus été
Il *or* elle fut	Il *or* elle eut été
Nous fûmes	Nous eûmes été
Vous fûtes	Vous eûtes été
Ils *or* elles furent	Ils *or* elles eurent été.
FUTURE.	**FUTURE ANTERIOR.**
(*I shall be*)	(*I shall have been*)
Je serai	J'aurai été
Tu seras	Tu auras été
Il *or* elle sera	Il *or* elle aura été
Nous serons	Nous aurons été
Vous serez	Vous aurez été
Ils *or* elles seront	Ils *or* elles auront été.

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.

(I should be)

Je serais
Tu serais
Il *or* elle serait
Nous serions
Vous seriez
Ils *or* elles seraient

ANTERIOR.

(I should have been)

J'aurais été
Tu aurais été
Il *or* elle aurait été
Nous aurions été
Vous auriez été
Ils *or* elles auraient été.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

(Be [thou])

. . . . . .
Sois
. . . . . .
Soyons
Soyez
. . . . . .

PERFECT

(Have [thou] been)

. . . . . .
Aie été
. . . . . .
Ayons été
Ayez été
. . . . . .

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

(That I may be)

Que je sois
Que tu sois
Qu'il *or* qu'elle soit
Que nous soyons
Que vous soyez
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles soient

PERFECT.

(That I may have been)

Que j'aie été
Que tu aies été
Qu'il *or* qu'elle ait été
Que nous ayons été
Que vous ayez été
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aient été.

IMPERFECT.

(That I might be)

Que je fusse
Que tu fusses
Qu'il *or* qu'elle fût
Que nous fussions
Que vous fussiez
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles fussent

PLUPERFECT.

(That I might have been)

Que j'eusse été
Que tu eusses été
Qu'il *or* qu'elle eût été
Que nous eussions été
Que vous eussiez été
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles eussent été.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.

Être (*to be*)

PERFECT.

Avoir été (*to have been*).

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Étant (*being*)	Ayant été (*having been*).

PAST (INVARIABLE).

Été (*been*).

History and origin of the various tenses of the verb ÊTRE.

I. INFINITIVE: The verb *Esse* was defective in Latin, borrowing six of its tenses (*fui, fueram, fuero, fuerim, fuissem, forem*) from the obsolete *fuere*. In French the verb *être* borrows its tenses from three different verbs: 1°. *Fuo*, which has given the preterite *fus* (fui), and the subjunctive imperfect *fusse* (fuissem); 2°. *Stare*—hence the past participle *été*, O.F. *esté* (status); 3°. *Esse*—which has supplied all the other tenses, more particularly the infinitive present *être*, O.F. *estre*.

To the defective verbs, such as *velle, posse, offerre, inferre, esse*, too short to form French infinitives, colloquial Latin added the desinence *re*, and assimilated them erroneously to the verbs of the second conjugation; they passed into French under this new form.—Thus it is that as early as the sixth century we find in Merovingian texts *volere* (for *velle*), *potere* (for *posse*), *offerrere* (for *offerre*), *inferrere* (for *inferre*), *essere* (for *esse*). *Essere*, being accented *éssere*, was contracted, according to the rule (see § 51), into *ess're;* and as *sr* gives *str*, so *ess're* became successively *estre*, and then *être*. This etymology is confirmed, besides, by the form of the verb *être* in the other Romance languages; it is *éssere* in Italian, *ser* in Spanish and Portuguese, *esser* in Provençal.

If any person doubted that *essere* has ever existed, we might easily answer by quoting positive texts. Gruter's "Corpus inscriptionum" contains (No. 1062, 1) the following epitaph, discovered at Rome in a church belonging to the seventh century: "*Cod estis fui et quod sum* essere *abetis*—that is to say, *quod estis, fui: et quod sum, esse habetis.*" We find in a series of Carlovingian diplomas, A.D. 820: "Quod *essere* debuissent"; A.D. 821: "*Essere* de bèneficio"; A.D. 836: "Quod de ista ecclesia Vulfaldus episcopus *essere* debuisset." This lengthening in *re* is even applied to the compounds of *esse* (such as *adesse*, etc.)—as, for instance, in a charter bearing date 818: "Quam ingenuus *adéssere.*"

It is useless to prove by any further facts that *être* and *essere* are one and the same word. No one believes now that *être* is derived

from *stare*. How could *stare* have become *être*, since, in Latin, the accent is on *sta* (*stâre*)? Besides, how could *stare* agree with the Provençal *esser*, the Italian *essere*, the Spanish and the Portuguese *ser*? Finally, we know for certain that *stare* has given to the French language the verb *ester*, and it could not give anything else. We say: *ester* en justice (stare in judicio). *Ester* has also remained as an element in some compounds, such as *rester* (re-stare); *arrêter*, O.F. arr*ester* (ad-re-stare).

II. PRESENT PARTICIPLE: *Étant*. Formed regularly from *être*, as *mettant* from *mettre*.—III. PAST PARTICIPLE: *Été*, O.F. *esté*, from the Latin *stâtus*.—IV. INDICATIVE PRESENT. From the corresponding Latin tense: *Suis* (sum, more correctly, in O.F. *sui*, as the final *s* does not occur in the Latin).—*Es* (es).—*Est* (est).—*Sommes* (súmus).—*Êtes*, O.F. *estes* (estis).—*Sont* (sunt).—V. IMPERFECT. *Étais* does not come from the Latin, but immediately from *être*, as *mettais* from *mettre*.—VI. PAST DEFINITE. From the corresponding Latin tense; *fus*, O.F. *fui* (fui),—*fus*, O.F. *fuis* (fuisti),—*fut* (fuit),—*fûmes* (fuimus: the circumflex accent here is an error and an etymological blunder, introduced during the sixteenth century),—*fûtes*, O.F. *fustes* (fuistis),—*furent* (fuerunt).—VII. FUTURE: *Serai*, O.F. *esserai*. The French future being compounded from the infinitive of the verb and the auxiliary *avoir* (as we have seen above, § 279), *esserai* represents *essere-habeo* (esser-ai).—VIII. SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT. From the corresponding Latin tense: *Sois*, O.F. *soi* (sim),—*sois* (sis),—*soit* (sit),—*soient* (sint).—The 1st and 2nd persons plural *soyons*, *soyez*, come from *sîmus*, *sîtis*, and not from *simus*, *sitis* (which could have only given *soins*, *soiz*).—IX. IMPERFECT. From the Latin pluperfect: *Fusse* (fuissem),—*fusses* (fúisses),—*fût*, O.F. *fuist* (fúisset),—*fussions* (fuissémus),—*fussiez* (fuissétis),—*fussent* (fúissent).—X. IMPERATIVE. This tense is borrowed from the subjunctive (*sois*, *soyons*, *soyez*).

II. Conjugation of the auxiliary verb AVOIR, *to have*.

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT. (*I have*)	PERFECT. (*I have had*)
J'ai	J'ai eu
Tu as	Tu as eu
Il *or* elle a	Il *or* elle a eu
Nous avons	Nous avons eu
Vous avez	Vous avez eu
Ils *or* elles ont	Ils *or* elles ont eu.

IMPERFECT.

(*I had*)
J'avais
Tu avais
Il *or* elle avait
Nous avions
Vous aviez
Ils *or* elles avaient

PLUPERFECT.

(*I have had*)
J'avais eu
Tu avais eu
Il *or* elle avait eu
Nous avions eu
Vous aviez eu
Ils *or* elles avaient eu.

PAST DEFINITE.

(*I had*)
J'eus
Tu eus
Il *or* elle eut
Nous eûmes
Vous eûtes
Ils *or* elles eurent

PAST ANTERIOR.

(*I have had*)
J'eus eu
Tu eus eu
Il *or* elle eut eu
Nous eûmes eu
Vous eûtes eu
Ils *or* elles eurent eu.

FUTURE.

(*I shall have*)
J'aurai
Tu auras
Il *or* elle aura
Nous aurons
Vous aurez
Ils *or* elles auront

FUTURE ANTERIOR.

(*I shall have had*)
J'aurai eu
Tu auras eu
Il *or* elle aura eu
Nous aurons eu
Vous aurez eu
Ils *or* elles auront eu.

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.

(*I should have*)
J'aurais
Tu aurais
Il *or* elle aurait
Nous aurions
Vous auriez
Ils *or* elles auraient

ANTERIOR.

(*I should have had*)
J'aurais eu
Tu aurais eu
Il *or* elle aurait eu
Nous aurions eu
Vous auriez eu
Ils *or* elles auraient eu.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

(*Have* [*thou*])
. . . . . .
Aie
. . . . . .
Ayons
Ayez
. . . . . .

PERFECT.

(*Have* [*thou*] *had*)
. . . . . .
Aie eu
. . . . . .
Ayons eu
Ayez eu
. . . .

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*That I may have*)	(*That I may have had*)
Que j'aie	Que j'aie eu
Que tu aies	Que tu aies eu
Qu'il *or* qu'elle ait	Qu'il *or* qu'elle ait eu
Que nous ayons	Que nous ayons eu
Que vous ayez	Que vous ayez eu
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aient.	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aient eu.

IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
(*That I might have*)	(*That I might have had*)
Que j'eusse	Que j'eusse eu
Que tu eusses	Que tu eusses eu
Qu'il *or* qu'elle eût	Qu'il *or* qu'elle eût eu
Que nous eussions	Que nous eussions eu
Que vous eussiez	Que vous eussiez eu
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles eussent	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles eussent eu.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Avoir (*to have*)	Avoir eu (*to have had*).

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Ayant (*having*)	Ayant eu (*having had*).

PAST (VARIABLE).

Eu, *fem.* eue.

History and origin of the various tenses of the verb AVOIR.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.—The initial *h* of *habere* (avoir) has disappeared in the French conjugation, as in *orge* (=barley), from *h*ordeum, *on* from *homo*, *or* from *hora*, etc.... The Latin *b* has become *v*: ha*b*ere=a*v*oir, ha*b*ebam=a*v*ais, as in prou*v*er (pro*b*are)=to prove, cou*v*er (cu*b*are)=to brood, fè*v*e (fa*b*a)=bean, che*v*al (ca*b*allus)=horse, etc....—I. INFINITIVE PRESENT: *Avoir*, O.F. *aver*, from the Latin *habére*.—II. PARTICIPLE PRESENT: *Ayant*, from the Latin *habéntem*. The *b* has disappeared, as in *viorne* (vi[*b*]urnum)=viburnum, *taon* (ta[*b*]anus)=gad-fly, etc.....—III. PARTICIPLE PAST: *Eu*, O.F.

eü, aü, or *aüt*, and in the eleventh century *avut*, from the Latin *habitum* (L.L. *habutum*. On the participles in *utum*, see § 289).—IV. INDICATIVE PRESENT. From the corresponding Latin tense: *Ai* (hábeo),—*as* (hábes),—*a*, O.F. *at* (hábet: the O.F. *t* is etymologically correct),—*avons*, O.F. *avomes* (habémus),—*avez* (habétis),—*ont* (hábent).—V. IMPERFECT. From the corresponding Latin tense: *Avais*, O.F. *avois* and *aveis* (habébam: the old language, ever faithful to the Latin etymology, had no final *s* in the first person),—*avais* (habébas),—*avait* (habébat),—*avions*, O.F. *aviomes* (habebámus),—*aviez* (habebátis), *avaient* (habébant).—VI. PRETERITE *or* PAST DEFINITE. From the corresponding Latin tense: *Eus*, O.F. *eu* (hábui),—*eus* (habuisti),—*eut* (habuit),—*eûmes* (ha[b]uimus),—*eûtes* O.F. *eüstes* (ha[b]uistis),—*eurent* (ha[b]uerunt.—VII. FUTURE: *Aurai*, O.F. *avrai*, and in the twelfth century *averai*, from the infinitive *aver* (see above, § 279) and the auxiliary *ai*, reproduces *habere-habeo*.—VIII. SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT. From the corresponding Latin tense: *Aie* (habeam),—*aies* (habeas),—*ait* (habeat),—*ayons*, O.F. *aiomes* (ha[b]eamus),—*ayez* (ha[b]eatis),—*aient* (habeant).—IX. IMPERFECT. From the Latin pluperfect: *Eusse* (ha[b]úissem),—*eusses* (ha[b]úisses),—*eût*, O.F. *eust*, *aüst* (ha[b]úisset),—*eussions* (ha[b]uissémus),—*eussiez* (ha[b]uissétis),—*eussent* (ha[b]úissent).

SECTION IV.

ACTIVE VERBS.

295. We have already given the definition of the *active verb* (§§ 248 and 251), and the division of the four French conjugations (§ 263). Section II. has taught us the *formation of the simple tenses*; Section III. has explained *the formation of the compound tenses*, and the conjugation of *avoir*, which serves as an auxiliary to the active verbs. It remains for us to group all these separate parts in one general paradigm, which shall present the *ensemble* of the conjugation of French active verbs.

I. First conjugation.—Verb AIMER, *to love.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

(*I love*)
J'aim **e**
Tu aim **es**
Il *or* elle aim **e**
Nous aim **ons**
Vous aim **ez**
Ils *or* elles aim **ent**

PAST INDEFINITE.

(*I have loved*)
J'ai aimé
Tu as aimé
Il *or* elle a aimé
Nous avons aimé
Vous avez aimé
Ils *or* elles ont aimé.

IMPERFECT.

(*I was loving*)
J'aim **ais**
Tu aim **ais**
Il *or* elle aim **ait**
Nous aim **ions**
Vous aim **iez**
Ils *or* elles aim **aient**

PLUPERFECT.

(*I had loved*)
J'avais aimé
Tu avais aimé
Il *or* elle avait aimé
Nous avions aimé
Vous aviez aimé
Ils *or* elles avaient aimé.

PAST DEFINITE.

(*I loved*)
J'aim **ai**
Tu aim **as**
Il *or* elle aim **a**
Nous aim **âmes**
Vous aim **âtes**
Ils *or* elles aim **èrent**

PAST ANTERIOR.

(*I had loved*)
J'eus aimé
Tu eus aimé
Il *or* elle eut aimé
Nous eûmes aimé
Vous eûtes aimé
Ils *or* elles eurent aimé.

FUTURE.

(*I shall love*)
J'aim *er* **ai**
Tu aim *er* **as**
Il *or* elle aim *er* **a**
Nous aim *er* **ons**
Vous aim *er* **ez**
Ils *or* elles aim *er* **ont**

FUTURE ANTERIOR.

(*I shall have loved*)
J'aurai aimé
Tu auras aimé
Il *or* elle aura aimé
Nous aurons aimé
Vous aurez aimé
Ils *or* elles auront aimé.

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.

(*I should love*)
J'aim *er* **ais**
Tu aim *er* **ais**
Il *or* elle aim *er* **ait**
Nous aim *er* **ions**
Vous aim *er* **iez**
Ils *or* elles aim *er* **iaent**

ANTERIOR.

(*I should have loved*)
J'aurais *or* j'eusse aimé
Tu aurais *or* tu eusses aimé
Il *or* elle aurait *or* eût aimé
Nous aurions *or* eussions aimé
Vous auriez *or* eussiez aimé
Ils *or* elles auraient *or* eussent aimé.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*Love thou*)	(*Have [thou] loved*)
. . . . .	. . . . .
Aim **e**	Aie aim é
. . . . .	. . . . .
Aim **ons**	Ayons aim é
Aim **ez**	Ayes aim é
. . . . .	. . . . .

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*That I may love*)	(*That I may have loved*)
Que j'aim **e**	Que j'aie aim é
Que tu aim **es**	Que tu aies aim é
Qu'il *or* qu'elle aim **e**	Qu'il *or* qu'elle ait aim é
Que nous aim **ions**	Que nous ayons aim é
Que vous aim **iez**	Que vous ayes aim é
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aim **ent**	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aient aim é.

IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
(*That I might love*)	(*That I might have loved*)
Que j'aim **asse**	Que j'eusse aim é
Que tu aim **asses**	Que tu eusses aim é
Qu'il *or* qu'elle aim **ât**	Qu'il *or* qu'elle eût aim é
Que nous aim **assions**	Que nous eussions aim é
Que vous aim **assiez**	Que vous eussiez aim é
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aim **assent**	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles eussent aim é.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Aim **er** (*to love*)	Avoir aim é (*to have loved*).

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Aim **ant** (*loving*)	Ayant aim é (*having loved*).

PAST (VARIABLE).

Aim é, *fem.* aim ée (*loved*).

II. Second conjugation.—Verb FINIR, *to finish.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.	PAST INDEFINITE.
(*I finish*)	(*I have finished*)
Je fin **is**	J'ai fin **i**
Tu fin **is**	Tu as fin **i**
Il *or* elle fin **it**	Il *or* elle a fin **i**
Nous fin *iss* **ons**	Nous avons fin **i**
Vous fin *iss* **ez**	Vous avez fin **i**
Ils *or* elles fin *iss* **ent**	Ils *or* elles ont fin **i.**

IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
(*I was finishing*)	(*I had finished*)
Je fin *iss* **ais**	J'avais fin **i**
Tu fin *iss* **ais**	Tu avais fin **i**
Il *or* elle fin *iss* **ait**	Il *or* elle avait fin **i**
Nous fin *iss* **ions**	Nous avions fin **i**
Vous fin *iss* **iez**	Vous aviez fin **i**
Ils *or* elles fin *iss* **aient**	Ils *or* elles avaient fin **i.**

PAST DEFINITE.	PAST ANTERIOR.
(*I finished*)	(*I had finished*)
Je fin **is**	J'eus fin **i**
Tu fin **is**	Tu eus fin **i**
Il *or* elle fin **it**	Il *or* elle eut fin **i**
Nous fin **îmes**	Nous eûmes fin **i**
Vous fin **îtes**	Vous eûtes fin **i**
Ils *or* elles fin **irent**	Ils *or* elles eurent fin **i.**

FUTURE.	FUTURE ANTERIOR.
(*I shall finish*)	(*I shall have finished*)
Je fin *ir* **ai**	J'aurai fin **i**
Tu fin *ir* **as**	Tu auras fin **i**
Il *or* elle fin *ir* **a**	Il *or* elle aura fin **i**
Nous fin *ir* **ons**	Nous aurons fin **i**
Vous fin *ir* **ez**	Vous aurez fin **i**
Ils *or* elles fin *ir* **ont**	Ils *or* elles auront fin **i.**

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.	ANTERIOR.
(*I should finish*)	(*I should have finished*)
Je fin *ir* **ais**	J'aurais *or* j'eusse fin **i**
Tu fin *ir* **ais**	Tu aurais *or* tu eusses fin **i**
Il *or* elle fin *ir* **ait**	Il *or* elle aurait *or* eût fin **i**
Nous fin *ir* **ions**	Nous aurions *or* eussions fin **i**
Vous fin *ir* **iez**	Vous auriez *or* eussiez fin **i**
Ils *or* elles fin *ir* **aient**	Ils *or* elles auraient *or* eussent fin **i.**

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*Finish* [*thou*])	(*Have* [*thou*] *finished*)
. . . . .	. . . . .
Fin **is**	Aie fin **i**
. . . . .	. . . . .
Fin *iss* **ons**	Ayons fin **i**
Fin *iss* **ez**	Ayez fin **i**
. . . . .	. . . . .

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*That I may finish*)	(*That I may have finished*)
Que je fin *iss* **e**	Que j'aie fin **i**
Que tu fin *iss* **es**	Que tu aies fin **i**
Qu'il *or* qu'elle fin *iss* **e**	Qu'il *or* qu'elle ait fin **i**
Que nous fin *iss* **ions**	Que nous ayons fin **i**
Que vous fin *iss* **iez**	Que vous ayez fin **i**
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles fin *iss* **ent**	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aient fin **i**.

IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
(*That I might finish*)	(*That I might have finished*)
Que je fin **isse**	Que j'eusse fin **i**
Que tu fin **isses**	Que tu eusses fin **i**
Qu'il *or* qu'elle fin **ît**	Qu'il *or* qu'elle eût fin **i**
Que nous fin **issions**	Que nous eussions fin **i**
Que vous fin **issiez**	Que vous eussiez fin **i**
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles fin **issent**	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles eussent fin **i**.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Fin **ir** (*to finish*)	Avoir fin **i** (*to have finished*).

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Fin *iss* **ant** (*finishing*)	Ayant fin **i** (*having finished*).

PAST (VARIABLE).

Fin **i**, *fem*, fin **ie** (*finished*).

III. Third conjugation.—Verb RECEVOIR, *to receive.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

(*I receive*)
Je reç **ois**
Tu reç **ois**
Il *or* elle reç **oit**
Nous rec **evons**
Vous rec **evez**
Ils *or* elles reç **oivent**

PERFECT.

(*I have received*)
J'ai reç **u**
Tu as reç **u**
Il *or* elle a reç **u**
Nous avons reç **u**
Vous avez reç **u**
Ils *or* elles ont reç **u.**

IMPERFECT.

(*I was receiving*)
Je recev **ais**
Tu recev **ais**
Il *or* elle recev **ait**
Nous recev **ions**
Vous recev **iez**
Ils *or* elles recev **aient**

PLUPERFECT.

(*I had received*)
J'avais reç **u**
Tu avais reç **u**
Il *or* elle avait reç **u**
Nous avions reç **u**
Vous aviez reç **u**
Ils *or* elles avaient reç **u.**

PAST DEFINITE.

(*I received*)
Je reç **us**
Tu reç **us**
Il *or* elle reç **ut**
Nous reç **ûmes**
Vous reç **ûtes**
Ils *or* elles reç **urent**

PAST ANTERIOR.

(*I had received*)
J'eus reç **u**
Tu eus reç **u**
Il *or* elle eut reç **u**
Nous eûmes reç **u**
Vous eûtes reç **u**
Ils *or* elles eurent reç **u.**

FUTURE.

(*I shall receive*)
Je recev *r* **ai**
Tu recev *r* **as**
Il *or* elle recev *r* **a**
Nous recev *r* **ons**
Vous recev *r* **ez**
Ils *or* elles recev *r* **ont**

FUTURE ANTERIOR.

(*I shall have received*)
J'aurai reç **u**
Tu auras reç **u**
Il *or* elle aura reç **u**
Nous aurons reç **u**
Vous aurez reç **u**
Ils *or* elles auront reç **u.**

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.

(*I should receive*)
Je recev *r* **ais**
Tu recev *r* **ais**
Il *or* elle recev *r* **ait**
Nous recev *r* **ions**
Vous recev *r* **iez**
Ils *or* elles recev *r* **aient**

ANTERIOR.

(*I should have received*)
J'aurais *or* j'eusse reç **u**
Tu aurais *or* tu eusses reç **u**
Il *or* elle aurait *or* eût reç **u**
Nous aurions *or* nous eussions reç **u**
Vous auriez *or* vous eussiez reç **u**
Ils *or* elles auraient *or* eussent reç **u.**

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*Receive* [*thou*])	(*Have* [*thou*] *received*)
. . . . .	. . . . .
Reç **ois**	Aie reç **u**
. . . . .	. . . . .
Recev **ons**	Ayons reç **u**
Recev **ez**	Ayez reç **u**
. . . . .	. . . . .

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*That I may receive*)	(*That I may have received*)
Que je reç **oive**	Que j'aie reç **u**
Que tu reç **oives**	Que tu aies reç **u**
Qu'il *or* qu'elle reç **oive**	Qu'il *or* qu'elle ait reç **u**
Que nous recev **ions**	Que nous ayons reç **u**
Que vous recev **iez**	Que vous ayez reç **u**
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles reç **oivent**	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aient reç **u**.

IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
(*That I might receive*)	(*That I might have received*)
Que je reç **usse**	Que j'eusse reç **u**
Que tu reç **usses**	Que tu eusses reç **u**
Qu'il *or* qu'elle reç **ût**	Qu'il *or* qu'elle eût reç **u**
Que nous reç **ussions**	Que nous eussions reç **u**
Que vous reç **ussiez**	Que vous eussiez reç **u**
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles reç **ussent**	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles eussent reç **u**.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Recev **oir** (*to receive*)	Avoir reç **u** (*to have received*)

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Recev **ant** (*receiving*)	Ayant reç **u** (*having received*).

PAST (VARIABLE).

Reç **u**, *fem.* re**çue** (*received*).

The regular verbs composing the third conjugation are only seven in number: *devoir* (= to owe), *redevoir* (= to owe still), *recevoir* (= to receive), *percevoir* (= to perceive), *apercevoir* (= to see), *concevoir* (= to conceive), *décevoir* (= to deceive). These verbs, all ending in *ev-oir*, form their tenses in the following manner: They suppress the particle *ev:* 1° in the three persons singular and in the third person plural of the indicative present (*je reçois, tu reçois, il reçoit, ils reçoivent*), and of the subjunctive present (*que je reçoive, que tu reçoives, qu'il reçoive, qu'ils reçoivent*); also in the second person of the imperative (*reçois*);—2° in the past definite (*je reçus, tu reçus, il reçut, nous reçûmes, vous reçûtes, ils reçurent*) and in the imperfect subjunctive (*que je reçusse, que tu reçusses, qu'il reçût, que nous reçussions, que vous reçussiez, qu'ils reçussent*); 3° in the past participle (*reçu*). Throughout all the other moods, tenses, and persons they retain the particle *ev*, and the stem *recev* is then followed by the regular conjugation in *er* (Indicative present: *nous recevons, vous recevez*; Imperfect: *recevais, ais, ait, ions, iez, aient*;—Imperative: *recevez, recevons*;—Subjunctive: *que nous recevions, que vous receviez*;—Participle present: *recevant*). The future is formed irregularly; that is to say, instead of being made up according to the rule (see § 279) by the adding of *ai* to the infinitive (*recevoir*-ai, from *recev*-oir, as *pourvoir*-ai from *pourvoir*), the infinitive is contracted, and the future assumes the form *recevrai, recevras, recevra*, etc...; likewise in the Conditional, *recevrais*, and not *recevoirais*.

All these forms have their natural origin and explanations in the corresponding Latin ones. The indicative present is *reçois*, because it corresponds to the Latin *recipio:* the short Latin *i* becoming *oi* in French when it is accented (see § 17), *recipio* gives *reçois;* and as this same *i*, when unaccented, becomes *e* mute in French, *recipiebam* naturally becomes *recevais* and not *reçoivais*. In like manner the diphthong *oi* of the infinitive *recevoir* has become an *e* mute in the composition *recever-ai;* hence, later *recevrai* (see § 53).

IV. Fourth conjugation.—Verb ROMPRE, *to break.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

(*I break*)
Je romp **s**
Tu romp **s**
Il *or* elle romp **t**
Nous romp **ons**
Vous romp **ez**
Ils *or* elles romp **ent**

IMPERFECT.

(*I was breaking*)
Je romp **ais**
Tu romp **ais**
Il *or* elle romp **ait**
Nous romp **ions**
Vous romp **iez**
Ils *or* elles romp **aient**

PAST DEFINITE.

(*I broke*)
Je romp **is**
Tu romp **is**
Il *or* elle romp **it**
Nous romp **îmes**
Vous romp **îtes**
Ils *or* elles romp **irent**

FUTURE.

(*I shall break*)
Je romp *r* **ai**
Tu romp *r* **as**
Il *or* elle romp *r* **a**
Nous romp *r* **ons**
Vous romp *r* **ez**
Ils *or* elles romp *r* **ont**

PERFECT.

(*I have broken*)
J'ai romp **u**
Tu as romp **u**
Il *or* elle a romp **u**
Nous avons romp **u**
Vous avez romp **u**
Ils *or* elles ont romp **u**.

PLUPERFECT.

(*I had broken*)
J'avais romp **u**
Tu avais romp **u**
Il *or* elle avait romp **u**
Nous avions romp **u**
Vous aviez romp **u**
Ils *or* elles avaient romp **u**.

PAST ANTERIOR.

(*I had broken*)
J'eus romp **u**
Tu eus romp **u**
Il *or* elle eut romp **u**
Nous eûmes romp **u**
Vous eûtes romp **u**
Ils *or* elles eurent romp **u**.

FUTURE ANTERIOR.

(*I shall have broken*)
J'aurai romp **u**
Tu auras romp **u**
Il *or* elle aura romp **u**
Nous aurons romp **u**
Vous aurez romp **u**
Ils *or* elles auront romp **u**.

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.

(*I should break*)
Je romp *r* **ais**
Tu romp *r* **ais**
Il *or* elle romp *r* **ait**
Nous romp *r* **ions**
Vous romp *r* **iez**
Ils *or* elles romp *r* **aient**

ANTERIOR.

(*I should have broken*)
J'aurais *or* j'eusse romp **u**
Tu aurais *or* tu eusses romp **u**
Il *or* elle aurait *or* eût romp **u**
Nous aurions *or* nous eussions romp **u**
Vous auriez *or* vous eussiez romp **u**
Ils *or* elles auraient *or* eussent romp **u**

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*Break* [*thou*])	(*Have* [*thou*] *broken*)
. . . . .	. . . . .
Romp **s**	Aie romp **u**
. . . . .	. . . . .
Romp **ons**	Ayons romp **u**
Romp **ez**	Ayez romp **u**
. . . . .	. . . . .

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*That I may break*)	(*That I may have broken*)
Que je romp **e**	Que j'aie romp **u**
Que tu romp **es**	Que tu aies romp **u**
Qu'il *or* qu'elle romp **e**	Qu'il *or* qu'elle ait romp **u**
Que nous romp **ions**	Que nous ayons romp **u**
Que vous romp **iez**	Que vous ayez romp **u**
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles romp **ent**	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aient romp **u**.

IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
(*That I might break*)	(*That I might have broken*)
Que je romp **isse**	Que j'eusse romp **u**
Que tu romp **isses**	Que tu eusses romp **u**
Qu'il *or* qu'elle romp **ît**	Qu'il *or* qu'elle eût romp **u**
Que nous romp **issions**	Que nous eussions romp **u**
Que vous romp **issiez**	Que vous eussiez romp **u**
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles romp **issent**	Qu'ils *or* qu'elles eussent romp **u**.

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Romp **re** (*to break*)	Avoir romp **u** (*to have broken*).

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Romp **ant** (*breaking*)	Ayant romp **u** (*having broken*).

PAST (VARIABLE).

Romp **u**, *fem.* romp **ue** (*broken*).

296. If we wish to conjugate these verbs interrogatively, there is nothing to do but to displace the pronoun, putting it (in the simple tenses) after the verb (*aimez*-vous ?=do you love ?), or, in the compound tenses, between the auxiliary and the past participle (*ai*-je *aimé*=have I loved? *avais*-je *aimé*=had I loved? *aurai*-je *aimé*=shall I have loved? etc. . . . .) The interrogative conjugation does not differ (so far as the endings of the verb are concerned) from the direct conjugation, except in the following points :

297. If the first person singular ends in a mute syllable (*j'aime*=I love ; *que je puisse*=that I may be able) that syllable becomes *accented* (see § 51) when the verb is conjugated interrogatively (aimé-je, puissé-je), and, in order to mark the alteration, the *e* mute is replaced by a close *é* (see § 22).

298. When the third person singular ends in a vowel, as is the case for the first conjugation (*il aime*, he loves; *il va*, he goes) a *t*, called euphonic, is placed between the verb and the pronoun (*aime*-t-*il*, *va*-t-*il* ?).

We have seen (§ 271) that this pretended euphonic *t* has not been invented, as people generally believe, for the sake of softening the pronunciation; it is really the old *t* of the third person singular, which has disappeared from the first conjugation, whilst it persists in the others.

299. (A) In order to conjugate the verbs in the *negative* form (with the negative *ne...pas*, *ne...point*) it suffices that we should place *ne* between the pronoun and the verb for the simple tenses (*je* **ne** *veux* **pas**=I do not wish ; *tu* **ne** *veux* **pas**=thou dost not wish, etc.). In the compound tenses the word *pas* is placed between the auxiliary and the participle (*je* **n'***ai* **pas** *voulu*=I have not wished ; *je* **n'***aurais* **pas** *voulu*=I would not have wished, etc.).

(B) To conjugate a verb *interrogatively with a negative*, *ne* is placed before the verb and *pas* after it (**ne** vois-je **pas** ? = do

I not see?). In the compound tenses *ne* comes before the auxiliary and *pas* after it (n'ai-je pas vu?=have I not seen?)

SECTION V.

PASSIVE VERBS.

300. The passive verb, as we have explained (§ 248), expresses an action suffered by the subject (*l'agneau* a été mangé *par le loup*=the lamb has been eaten by the wolf).

301. Every active verb can become passive—that is to say, it can be employed in the passive form. *Manger*=to eat, is active in *le chat* mange *la souris*=the cat eats the mouse; it becomes passive in *la souris* est mangée *par le chat*=the mouse is eaten by the cat.

We have seen (§ 293) the origin of the passive verbs, and how the French language has forsaken the endings of the Latin passive verbs, replacing them by the auxiliary *être*, followed by the passive participle of the verb.

302. There is only one conjugation for the passive verbs; it consists of the auxiliary *être*, followed (in all its moods, tenses, and persons) by the *past participle* of the verb we wish to conjugate (*je suis* mordu=I am bitten; *j'ai été* mordu=I have been bitten; *je serai* mordu=I shall be bitten, etc.).

303. Care must be taken to make the past participle *always* agree with the subject of the verb (**il** *est mordu*=he is bitten; **elle** *est mordue*=she is bitten; **ils** *sont mordus*=they are bitten, etc.).

Conjugation of the passive verb ÊTRE AIMÉ, *to be loved.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

(*I am loved*)

Je suis
Tu es
Il *or* elle est
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous sommes
Vous* êtes
Ils *or* elles sont
} aim és *or* aim ées

PAST INDEFINITE.

(*I have been loved*)

J'ai été
Tu as été
Il *or* elle a été
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous avons été
Vous avez été
Ils *or* elles ont été
} aime és *or* aim ées.

IMPERFECT.

(*I was loved*)

J'étais
Tu étais
Il *or* elle était
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous étions
Vous étiez
Ils *or* elles étaient
} aim és *or* aim ées

PLUPERFECT.

(*I had been loved*)

J'avais été
Tu avais été
Il *or* elle avait été
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous avions été
Vous aviez été
Ils *or* elles avaient été
} aim és *or* aim ées.

PAST DEFINITE.

(*I was loved*)

Je fus
Tu fus
Il *or* elle fut
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous fûmes
Vous fûtes
Ils *or* elles furent
} aim és *or* aim ées

PAST ANTERIOR.

(*I had been loved*)

J'eus été
Tu eus été
Il *or* elle eut été
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous eûmes été
Vous eûtes été
Ils *or* elles eurent été
} aim és *or* aim ées.

FUTURE.

(*I shall be loved*)

Je serai
Tu seras
Il *or* elle sera
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous serons
Vous serez
Ils *or* elles seront
} aim és *or* aim ées

FUTURE ANTERIOR.

(*I shall have been loved*)

J'aurai été
Tu auras été
Il *or* elle aura été
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous aurons été
Vous aurez été
Ils *or* elles auront été
} aim és *or* aim ées.

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.

(*I should be loved*)

Je serais
Tu serais
Il *or* elle serait
} aim é *or* aim ée

Nous serions
Vous seriez
Ils *or* elles seraient
} aim és *or* aim ées.

ANTERIOR.

(*I would have been loved*)

J'aurais été
Tu aurais été
Il *or* ellé aurait été
} aim é *or* aim ées

Nous aurions été
Vous auriez été
Ils *or* elles auraient été
} aim és *or* aim ées.

* When *vous* (= you) is used, out of politeness, instead of *tu* (= thou), the past participle remains, of course, in the *singular* (either *masculine* or *feminine*).

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

(*Be loved*)

. . . . . .

Sois aim é *or* aim ée

. . . . . .

Soyons } aim és *or* aim ées
Soyez }

. . . . . .

PERFECT.

(*Have* [*thou*] *been loved*)

. . . . . .

Aie été aim é *or* aim ée

. . . . . .

Ayons été } aim és *or* aim ées.
Ayez été }

. . . . . .

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

(*That I may be loved*)

Que je sois
Que tu sois } aim é *or* aim ée
Qu'il *or* qu'elle soit

Que nous soyons
Que vous soyez } aim és *or* aim ées
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles soient

PERFECT.

(*That I may have been loved*)

Que j'aie été
Que tu aies été } aim é *or* aim ée
Qu'il *or* qu'elle ait été

Que nous ayons été
Que vous ayez été } aim és *or* aim ées.
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles aient été

IMPERFECT.

(*That I might be loved*)

Que je fusse
Que tu fusses } aim é *or* aimée
Qu'il *or* qu'elle fût

Que nous fussions
Que vous fussiez } aim és *or* aim ées
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles fussent

PLUPERFECT.

(*That I might have been loved*)

Que j'eusse été
Que tu eusses été } aim é *or* aim ée
Qu'il *or* qu'elle eût été

Que nous eussions été
Que vous eussiez été } aim és *or* aim ées.
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles eussent été

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.

(*To be loved*)

Être aim é *or* aim ée

PERFECT.

(*To have been loved*)

Avoir été aim é *or* aim ée.

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.

(*Being loved*)

Étant aim é *or* aim ée

PERFECT.

(*Having been loved*)

Ayant été aim é *or* aim ée.

PAST (VARIABLE).

Aim é, *fem.* aim ée (*loved*).

SECTION VI.

NEUTER VERBS.

304. We have given (§§ 251, 252) the definition of the *neuter verb*, and explained how it differs from the *active verb*.

305. The *simple* tenses of the neuter verbs are the same as those of the active ones. The *compound* tenses of the neuter verbs are formed, sometimes with the help of the auxiliary **être** (je suis *arrivé*=I have arrived), sometimes with the help of the auxiliary **avoir** (j'ai *dormi*=I have slept). As the tenses compounded with *avoir* do not differ, so far as form goes, from the compound tenses of the active verbs (see § 291), it is superfluous to give a specimen of the neuter conjugation with *avoir*. We will merely, then, insert here a paradigm of the neuter conjugation with the auxiliary *être*.

306. There are only twelve neuter verbs, which are conjugated with the auxiliary *être*. They are the following: *aller*= to go; *arriver*=to arrive; *décéder*=to die; *échoir*=to fall due; *éclore*=to be hatched; *entrer*=to enter; *mourir*=to die; *naître* =to be born; *partir*=to go away; *sortir*=to go out; *tomber*=to fall (and its compound *retomber*=to fall again); *venir*=to come (and its compounds *devenir*=to become, *intervenir*=to interfere, *parvenir*=to succeed, *revenir*=to come back, *survenir*=to arrive unexpectedly).

307. When the neuter verbs are conjugated with the auxiliary *être*, the participle always agrees with the subject or nominative (**il** *est arrivé*, he has arrived; **elle** *est arrivée*=she has arrived; **ils** *sont arrivés*, they have arrived, etc.).

Conjugation of the verb TOMBER, *to fall.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

(*I fall*)
Je tomb **e**
Tu tomb **es**
Il *or* elle tomb **e**
Nous tomb **ons**
Vous tomb **ez**
Ils *or* elles tomb **ent**

PERFECT.

(*I have fallen*)
Je suis
Tu es
Il *or* elle est
} tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**
Nous sommes
Vous êtes
Ils *or* elles sont
} tomb **és** *or* tomb **ées.**

IMPERFECT.

(*I was falling*)
Je tomb **ais**
Tu tomb **ais**
Il *or* elle tomb **ait**
Nous tomb **ions**
Vous tomb **iez**
Ils *or* elles tomb **aient**

PLUPERFECT.

(*I had fallen*)
J'étais
Tu étais
Il *or* elle était
} tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**
Nous étions
Vous étiez
Ils *or* elles étaient
} tomb **és** *or* tomb **ées.**

PAST DEFINITE.

(*I fell*)
Je tomb **ai**
Tu tomb **as**
Il *or* elle tomb **a**
Nous tomb **âmes**
Vous tomb **âtes**
Ils *or* elles tomb **èrent**

PAST ANTERIOR.

(*I had fallen*)
Je fus
Tu fus
Il *or* elle fut
} tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**
Nous fûmes
Vous fûtes
Ils *or* elles furent
} tomb **és** *or* tomb **ées.**

FUTURE.

(*I shall fall*)
Je tomb *er* **ai**
Tu tomb *er* **as**
Il *or* elle tomb *er* **a**
Nous tomb *er* **ons**
Vous tomb *er* **ez**
Ils *or* elles tomb *er* **ont**

FUTURE ANTERIOR.

(*I shall have fallen*)
Je serai
Tu seras
Il *or* elle sera
} tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**
Nous serons
Vous serez
Ils *or* elles seront
} tomb **és** *or* tomb **ées.**

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.

(*I should fall*)
Je tomb *er* **ais**
Tu tomb *er* **ais**
Il *or* elle tomb *er* **ait**
Nous tomb *er* **ions**
Vous tomb *er* **iez**
Ils *or* elles tomb *er* **aient**

ANTERIOR.

(*I should have fallen*)
Je serais
Tu serais
Il *or* elle serait
} tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**
Nous serions
Vous seriez
Ils *or* elles seraient
} tomb **és** *or* tomb **ées.**

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*Fall* [*thou*])	(*Have* [*thou*] *fallen*)
. . . . .	. . . . .
Tomb **e**	Sois tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**
. . . . .	. . . . .
Tomb **ons**	Soyons / Soyez } tomb **és** *or* tomb **ées**
Tomb **ez**	
. . . . .	. . . . .

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*That I may fall*)	(*That I may have fallen*)
Que je tomb **e**	Que je sois / Que tu sois / Qu'il *or* qu'elle soit } tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**
Que tu tomb **es**	
Qu'il *or* qu'elle tomb **e**	
Que nous tomb **ions**	Que nous soyons / Que vous soyez / Qu'ils *or* qu'elles soient } tomb **és** *or* tomb **ées**.
Que vous tomb **iez**	
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles tomb **ent**	

IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
(*That I might fall*)	(*That I might have fallen*)
Que je tomb **asse**	Que je fusse / Que tu fusses / Qu'il *or* qu'elle fût } tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**
Que tu tomb **asses**	
Qu'il *or* qu'elle tomb **ât**	
Que nous tomb **assions**	Que nous fussions / Que vous fussiez / Qu'ils *or* qu'elles fussent } tomb **ée** *or* tomb **ées**.
Que vous tomb **assiez**	
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles tomb **assent**	

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*To fall*)	(*To have fallen*)
Tomb **er**	Être tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**.

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*Falling*)	(*Having fallen*)
Tomb **ant**	Étant tomb **é** *or* tomb **ée**

PAST (VARIABLE)

Tomb **é**, *fem.* tomb **ée** (*fallen*).

SECTION VII.

REFLEXIVE VERBS.

308. We have already defined the reflexive verb (§ 249).

309. With reference to meaning, reflexive verbs must be distinguished into two classes: *the reflexive verb properly so called*, expressing an action reflected upon the subject who does it (*je me blesse*=I wound myself; *je me bats*=I strike myself), and the *reciprocal verb*, expressing that the two subjects perform mutually upon each other the action marked by the verb: *Jean et Louis* s'égratignent=John and Louis scratch each other; *le chien et le loup* se battent=the dog and the wolf are fighting).

310. With reference to formation, reflexive verbs are likewise divided into two classes: 1°. The verbs reflexive by nature (*s'écrouler*=to fall to the ground; *se cabrer*=to rear; *s'évanouir*, to faint). 2°. The active verbs (as *laver*=to wash), or neuter verbs (as *nuire*, to injure), employed in a reflexive form (*je me suis lavé*=I have washed myself; *je me suis nui*=I have injured myself).

311. Reflexive verbs are conjugated in all the tenses with two pronouns, viz.—the *subject* (*je*), and the *complement* (*me*); these pronouns must always belong to the same person, because the action is both performed and suffered by the subject (*je me lave, tu te nuis*, etc.).

This verb has likewise been called *pronominal*, on account of its being conjugated with two pronouns; but the term *reflexive* is preferable, as it expresses more correctly the real nature of the verb.

312. The simple tenses of reflexive verbs are the same as those of active verbs; but the compound tenses are formed with the auxiliary *être*.

313. When the reflexive verb is so by nature (§ 310), the participle agrees: *ils se sont repentis*, they have repented*; when,

* The reflexive verb *s'arroger* (= to assume [for oneself]) is an exception to this rule, as the personal pronoun is always the *indirect* object.

on the other hand, the verb is only reflexively used (§ 310), the participle agrees, if the verb is active, and *preceded by its direct object* (*ils se sont aimés*, they have loved one another); and remains invariable, if the verb is neuter (*elles se sont plu* = they have pleased one another); or if the verb, being active, is *followed by its direct object* (*ils se sont* **dit** *des injures* = they have insulted each other).

Conjugation of the reflexive verb SE REPOSER, *to rest.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.

(*I rest*)
Je me repos **e**
Tu te repos **es**
Il *or* elle se repos **e**
Nous nous repos **ons**
Vous vous repos **ez**
Ils *or* elles se repos **ent**

IMPERFECT.

(*I was resting*)
Je me repos **ais**
Tu te repos **ais**
Il *or* elle se repos **ait**
Nous nous repos **ions**
Vous vous repos **iez**
Ils *or* elles se repos **aient**

PAST DEFINITE.

(*I rested*)
Je me repos **ai**
Tu te repos **as**
Il *or* elle se repos **a**
Nous nous repos **âmes**
Vous vous repos **âtes**
Ils *or* elles se repos **èrent**

FUTURE.

(*I shall rest*)
Je me repos *er* **ai**
Tu te repos *er* **as**
Il *or* elle se repos *er* **a**
Nous nous repos *er* **ons**
Vous vous repos *er* **ez**
Ils *or* elles se repos *er* **ont**

PAST INDEFINITE.

(*I have rested*)
Je me suis
Tu t'es
Il *or* elle s'est
} repos **é** *or* repos **ée**

Nous nous sommes
Vous vous êtes
Ils *or* elles se sont
} repos **és** *or* repos **ées**

PLUPERFECT.

(*I had rested*)
Je m'étais
Tu t'étais
Il *or* elle s'était
} repos **é** *or* rppos **ée.**

Nous nous étions
Vous vous étiez
Ils *or* elles s'étaient
} repos **és** *or* repos **ées.**

PAST ANTERIOR.

(*I had rested*)
Je me fus
Tu te fus
Il *or* elle se fut
} repos **é** *or* repos **ée**

Nous nous fûmes
Vous vous fûtes
Ils *or* elles se furent
} repos **és** *or* repos **ées.**

FUTURE ANTERIOR.

(*I shall have rested*)
Je me serai
Tu te seras
Il *or* elle se sera
} repos **é** *or* repos **ée**

Nous nous serons
Vous vous serez
Ils *or* elles se seront
} repos **és** *or* repos **ées.**

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.	ANTERIOR.
(*I should rest*)	(*I should have rested*)
Je me repos *er* **ais**	Je me serais Tu te serais Il *or* elle se serait } repos **é** *or* repos **ée**
Tu te repos *er* **ais**	
Il *or* elle se repos *er* **ait**	
Nous nous repos *er* **ions**	Nous nous serions Vous vous seriez Ils *or* elles se seraient } repos **és** *or* repos **ées**.
Vous vous repos *er* **iez**	
Ils *or* elles se repos *er* **aient**	

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*Rest*)	
. . . . .	
Repos **e**-toi	(*Never used*)
. . . . .	
Repos **ons**-nous	
Repos **ez**-vous	
. . . . .	

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*That I may rest*)	(*That I may have rested*)
Que je me repos **e**	Que je me sois Que tu te sois Qu'il *or* qu'elle se soit } repos **é** *or* repos **ée**
Que tu te repos **es**	
Qu'il *or* qu'elle se repos **e**	
Que nous nous repos **ions**	Que nous nous soyons Que vous vous soyez Qu'ils *or* qu'elles se soient } repos **és** *or* repos **ées**.
Que vous vous repos **iez**	
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles se repos **ent**	

IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
(*That I might rest*)	(*That I might have rested*)
Que je me repos **asse**	Que je me fusse Que tu te fusses Qu'il *or* quelle se fût } repos **é** *or* repos **ée**
Que tu te repos **asses**	
Qu'il *or* qu'elle se repos **ât**	
Que nous nous repos **assions**	Que nous nous fussions Que vous vous fussiez Qu'ils *or* qu'elles se fussent } repos **és** *or* repos **ées**
Que vous vous repos **assiez**	
Qu'ils *or* qu'elles se repos **assent**	

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*To rest*)	(*To have rested*)
Se repos **er**	S'être repos **é** *or* repos **ée**.

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.	PERFECT.
(*Resting*)	(*Having rested*)
Se repos ant	S'étant repos é *or* repos ée.

PAST VARIABLE.

Repos é, *fem.* repos ée (*rested*).

SECTION VIII.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

314. We have seen (§ 247) that all verbs are *personal*—that is to say, the action they express is always ascribed to a particular *person* called subject. A few verbs, however, are to be found expressing an action which cannot be ascribed to any special subject or *person*, such as the verbs *neiger*=to snow, and *pleuvoir*=to rain, which express certain natural phenomena. As these verbs express an action which can be ascribed to no particular person or subject, they are called *impersonal*.

This class of verbs having *only one person*, the third singular (*il* neige=it snows; *il* pleut=it rains), the grammarians also designate it by the name of verbs with *one* person, or uni*personal verbs*.

315. Impersonal verbs are used only in the third person singular, and are preceded by the pronoun *il*, which refers to no subject, and has merely a vague and indefinite sense.

This form of the impersonal verb comes from the Latin, which also used these verbs only in the third person singular. The pronoun *il* of the impersonal verbs is not the same as the pronoun *il* of the active verbs; this latter one, standing as it does for a distinct person, comes from the Latin *ille* (celui-là, that one); the former signifies *cela* (that), and is derived from the neuter *illud* (cela, that); hence it comes that in those verbs the past participle is invariable.

316. This third person of the singular is conjugated regularly, as the corresponding third person of the active verb.

317. Besides the verbs naturally impersonal (as *il pleut, il neige*), we can employ impersonally both active and neuter verbs (*il tombe* de l'eau=water is falling ; *il fait* beau=the weather is fine ; *il convient* d'obéir = it is proper to obey), etc.

Conjugation of the impersonal verb NEIGER, *to snow.*

INDICATIVE.

PRESENT.	PAST INDEFINITE.
Il neig**e** (*it snows*)	Il a neig**é** (*it has snowed*).
IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
Il neig**eait** (*it was snowing*)	Il avait neig**é** (*it had snowed*).
PAST DEFINITE.	PAST ANTERIOR.
Il neig**ea** (*it snowed*)	Il eut neig**é** (*it would have snowed*).
FUTURE.	FUTURE ANTERIOR.
Il neig**era** (*it will snow*)	Il aura neig**é** (*it will have snowed*).

CONDITIONAL.

PRESENT.	ANTERIOR.
Il neig**erait** (*it would snow*)	Il aurait neig**é** (*it would have snowed*).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Qu'il neig**e** (*that it may snow*)	Qu'il ait neig**é** (*that it may have snowed*).
IMPERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.
Qu'il neig**eât** (*that it might snow*)	Qu'il eût neig**é** (*that it might have snowed*).

INFINITIVE.

PRESENT.	PERFECT.
Neig er (*to snow*)	Avoir neig é (*to have snowed*).

PARTICIPLE-PAST INVARIABLE.

Neig é (*snowed*).

N.B.—For the insertion of *e* after *g* whenever the termination begins with *a* or *o*, see § 324.

SECTION IX.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

318. Every verb is called *regular* which, in the formation of its simple tenses, follow the rules we have explained in the §§ 268—290.

319. Every verb is called *irregular* which, in the formation of its simple tenses, deviates from these rules.

320. An irregular verb may be so in one of two ways. 1°. It may lack one or more of the moods, tenses, or persons of regular verbs, and then it is called a *defective verb* (from the Latin *defectivus*, defective, imperfect);—or, 2°. It may possess all these moods, tenses, or persons, but at the same time vary, so far as their formation is concerned, from the prescribed rules; it is, then, an *irregular verb* properly so called.

The quality of being *defective* is not a real element of classification, since the verbs *now* defective possessed in the old language all their tenses and persons; besides, a verb may be defective without being irregular; to be defective is an historical *accident* which may affect verbs belonging to all the conjugations.

321. The distinctive characteristic which separates the regular from the irregular verbs, is that, in the former the stem remains invariable, whilst the endings *alone* change with the moods, tenses, and persons (*chant*-er, *chant*-ons, *chant*-erai); whereas, in the irregular verbs the stem is not uniformly written throughout all the tenses of the conjugation (*ten*-ir, je *tiens*,—*voul*-oir, *veuil*-lez, je *veux*,—*sav*-oir, *sus*, *sache*, etc.).

322. The irregularities of verbs are explained, like most of the other exceptions to the rules of grammar, by the history of these irregularities; but the scientific theory of the formation of irregular verbs would far exceed the limits of an ordinary grammar. We shall therefore give here merely the elements, and state the irregularities affecting each of the four French conjugations, adding the most indispensable explanations.

On the difficulty of giving fully the theory of the irregular verbs, see what has been said in the Preface to this book.

1. First conjugation: ER.

323. Verbs like *mener* = to lead; *lever* = to raise; *acheter* = to buy; *modeler* = to model; *appeler* = to call; *jeter* = to throw, which have an *e* mute (or, as we have explained, § 53, an unaccented *e*) in the penultimate syllable of the infinitive, pronounce that *e* in the indicative present (because it has become accented, see § 53). For the purpose of showing that the *e* is now sounded, and of transforming the *e* mute into an open *e*, these verbs resort to two means: some place a grave accent on the vowel (*je mène*, *achète*, *lève*, *modèle*); whilst the others double the consonant (*j'appelle*, *je jette*), and the *e* thus altered preserves this first spelling before every other mute syllable: *j'achèterai*, *lèverai*, *appellerai*, *jetterai*.

The verbs having a close *é* before the final syllable change it into an open *è* before a consonant followed by an *e* mute, as céder = to yield, je cède = I yield; but those ending in *éger* keep the close *é*, as protéger = to protect, il me protège = he protects me.

For further details, see § 53.

324. The verbs ending in *cer* and *ger*, such as percer = *to pierce*, tracer = *to trace*,—manger = *to eat*, loger = *to lodge*, keep their *c* and *g* soft before *a* and *o*, the former by taking a cedilla under the *c:* nous perçons = *we pierce*, il traça = *he traced;* the latter by adding an *e mute* after the *g:* nous mangeons = *we eat*, nous logeons = *we lodge*.

325. The first conjugation has really only two irregular verbs: *envoyer*=to send, and *aller*=to go.

326. Envoyer (= to send) makes regularly *envoyant*, *envoyé*, *j'envoyai*, but the *y* changes into *i* when the diphthong *oi* is accented (see § 53): *j'envoie*, *envoies*, etc.... The same change takes place in the verbs ending in *uyer*, as appuyer = to lean, j'appuie = I lean. As for the verbs ending in *ayer*, as *payer* = to pay, the Academy accepts both je paye and paie = I pay. *Envoyer* is, properly speaking, an irregular verb only in the future and the conditional: *j'enverrai*, *j'enverrais* (instead of *j'envoier-ai*, just as *je nettoier-ai*).

Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

Envoyer was originally *enveier* (from the Latin *inde-viare*, a compound formed from *via*), and this old verb had for its future *enveierai*, then *enveierai*; hence, by a later contraction, *enverrai*.

327. Aller (= to go) is a doubly irregular verb, as it borrows its tenses from several different roots. It is conjugated as follows:—

Prim. Tenses, aller, allant, allé, je vais, j'allai.
Ind. Pres., je vais, tu vas, il *or* elle va, nous allons, vous allez, ils *or* elles vont.
Imperf., j'allais, etc., nous allions, etc.
Past Def., j'allai, tu allas, il *or* elle alla, nous allâmes, vous allâtes, ils *or* elles allèrent.
Fut., j'irai, tu iras, il *or* elle ira, nous irons, vous irez, ils *or* elles iront.
Cond. Pres., j'irais, tu irais, il *or* elle irait, nous irions, vous iriez, ils *or* elles iraient.

Imper., va, allons, allez.
Subj. Pres., que j'aille, etc., que nous allions, que vous alliez, qu'ils *or* qu'elles aillent.
Imperf., que j'allasse, etc., que nous allassions, etc.
Infin., aller.
Part., allant, allé.
Conjugated with the auxiliary être in the compound tenses.

Aller has borrowed its tenses from three different Latin verbs:—I. The first three persons of the indicative present are taken from the verb *vadere ;* je *vais* (*vado*), tu *vas* (*vadis*), il *va* (*vadit*, O.F. il *vat*).—II. The future and the conditional (j'ir-*ai*, j'ir-*ais*) are derived from the Latin *ire* by the regular formation of the future (see § 279).—III. All the other tenses (*allais*, *allai*, *allasse*, *aille*, *allant*, *allé*) are connected with the infinitive *aller*. As for this infinitive, or, to give the Old French spelling, *aler* and *aner*, it is derived from the Merovingian Latin *anare*, which is itself merely a softening of the classical Latin *adnare* (=*venir*, to come; this word, signifying literally to come *by water*, in Cicero, soon assumed an extended meaning, and Papias gives us *adnare* with the sense of to come *by land*).—The same remark can be made on the analogous word *enare* (to come by water, to swim, Cicero), which in classical Latin already expresses the action of coming in any manner, either by flying: *Daedalus.... gelidas enavit ad Arctos* (Virgil, Æneid., vi., 16); or by walking: *Enavimus has valles* (Silius Italicus).—It is singular that this same metaphor, from navigation to walking, should likewise occur in the verb *adripare*, which means originally *to land on the shore* (ripa), and which has ended by signifying, generally, *to touch the goal*, giving us the French verb *arriver*=to arrive.

In its transition from the Latin *anare* or *adnare* to the French *aller*, passing through the intermediate forms *aner* and then *aler*, the Latin has undergone an important change, that of the *n* into *l*, analogous to the one occurring in the French orphe*l*in (=an orphan), from *orphaninus* (derived from *orphanus*).

2. Second conjugation: IR.

328. We have seen (§ 263) that there are two regular conjugations in *ir:* the one (consisting of more than three hundred verbs) which places *iss* between the stem and the termination (*fin*-iss-*ais*); the other (composed only of about twenty verbs)

which merely adds *directly* to the stem the simple termination (je *sent*-ais); we have left this latter one entirely aside in studying the formation of the simple tenses (see § 263); we shall now study in detail each one of the verbs of which it consists, and we designate this conjugation by the name of *direct* conjugation in *ir*.

The interposition of the particle *iss* (explained in § 263) is not the only distinctive characteristic of the two conjugations in *ir*; *gém*-ir and *sent*-ir are both accented (see § 51) in the infinitive on the termination (*ir*); but in the indicative (il *gém*-it, il *sent*) *gém* is still accented on the termination, whilst *il sent* is accented on the stem. This difference of accentuation arises from the difference between the formation of the two verbs; *gém*-is is accented on the termination *is*, because, in Latin, the corresponding verb *gem-isco* was likewise accented on the termination; *il sent* is accented on the stem, because, in Latin, *sentio, sentis, sentit*, were also accented on the stem. Grammarians have given to the verbs forming this latter category the name of *strong* verbs, whilst they designate as *weak* those which are accented on the termination.

1. Conjugation with ISS.

329. This conjugation has but one irregular verb, and that only in the past participle. It is the verb **bénir**, the past participle of which can be spelt, according to the meaning, *bénit* or *béni* (*bénit*, in the case of things consecrated by the Church, and *béni* in all other instances: pain *bénit* = consecrated bread, nation *bénie* = blessed nation).

Grammarians pretend that, together with the regular forms *fleurissais, fleurissant*, the verb **fleurir** has a second imperfect (*florissais*), and a second participle (*florissant*). This is not correct: *florissais* and *florissant* are the remains of the old verb *florir*, which has disappeared from the modern language, but which persisted in French till the end of the sixteenth century.

Finally, we must further notice that the verb **haïr** (to hate), which is regular throughout all its tenses (*ha*-iss-*ant*, *ha*-ï, *ha*-iss-*ais*), softens its indicative present (in the singular), and in the imperative (second person singular) into *hai* (*hais, hais, hait*).

The participles in *i*, such as *fini*, originally had a final *t* (*finit*,

from the Latin *finitus*), which was soon abandoned; but this *t* has persisted in *bénit*, which survives conjointly with the more modern form *béni*.—*Florissant* is a remnant of the old verb *florir*=the Latin *florere*. As for *fleurir*, it is derived directly from the word *fleur*.

2. Direct conjugation in IR.

330. A few verbs belonging to this conjugation tend to amalgamate with the indirect one; thus *vêtir*=to clothe, which makes regularly *vêts*, *vêt*-ais, *vêt*-ant, will sooner or later forsake its present conjugation to join that in *iss*, through the natural tendency of the lengthening of forms which we have often noticed. Montesquieu and Voltaire have not been afraid to say *vêt*-iss-*ant*, and Lamartine has even used *vêt*-iss-*ais*.

The same phenomenon occurs in *saillir*=to leap, to jut out, which formerly made *saill*-ais, *saill*-ant, *saill*-i, and which has now joined the conjugation in *iss:* je *saill*-is, *saill*-iss-*ais*, *saill*-iss-*ant*. But the compounds (*assaillir*=to assault; *tressaillir*=to start) have remained faithful to the old conjugation (*tressaill*-e, *tressaill*-ant, *tressaill*-ais) and some of the old forms of the simple verb (such as *saill*-ant) are still used.

331. The set of about twenty verbs constituting the direct conjugation in *ir* are divided into three classes, according to the form of their past definite: *dormir*=to sleep; *courir*=to run; and *tenir*=to hold—have for their respective past definites je *dorm*-is, je *cour*-us, je *tins*. Accordingly, the first class comprises all the verbs whose past definite is in *is*,—the second is characterised by the ending of the same tense in *us*,—and the third forms the past definite by accenting the root of the verb (*ten*-ir, je *tin*-s, *ven*-ir, je *vin*-s).

These differences of formation are explained, as always, by the difference in the original Latin form. Thus *dormir* and *tenir* make, in the past definite, respectively dorm-*is* (by accenting the termination *is*) and *tins* (by accenting the root), because, in Latin, it is the termination of *dorm-ivi* which is accented, whilst in *tén-ui* the accent is on the root.

332. The **first class**, with the past definite in *is* (*dorm*-ir, je *dorm*-is), is subdivided in its turn into three categories, according to the form of the past participle, which may be *i* (dorm-*i*, bouill-*i*), *u* (vêt-*u*), or, finally, the stem of the verb (*ouvr*-ir, *ouvert*):

1° The first category has its past participle in *i*, and includes the thirteen following verbs: *dormir*=to sleep; *bouillir*=to boil; *cueillir*=to gather; *faillir*=to fail; *fuir*=to flee; *mentir*=to lie; *ouïr*=to hear; *partir*=to set out; *repentir*=to repent; *servir*=to serve; *saillir*=to leap, jut out; *sortir*=to go out; *sentir*=to smell *or* feel; and their compounds.

2° The second category has its participle in *u*, and comprises the two verbs *vêtir*=to clothe, and *férir*=to strike, which make *vêtu* and *féru*.

3° The third category comprises the verbs *souffrir*=to suffer (souffert); *offrir*=to offer (offert); *ouvrir*=to open (ouvert); *couvrir*=to cover (couvert); *acquérir*=to acquire (acquis); *requérir*=to require (requis); *conquérir*=to conquer (conquis); which form their past participle by accenting the stem of the verb.

These various participles have likewise their *raison d'être* in the differences of the Latin past participles. To say nothing of the participle in *u* which we have already studied (§ 289), the difference of formation between the participles in *i*, such as *dorm*-i (which are accented on the termination *i*) and the participles accented on the root, as *couvert*, arises from the fact that in Latin the termination is accented in *dorm*-itus, whilst the stem of the verb has the accent in *cooper*-tus (hence *couvert*).

333. The **second class** of verbs in *ir* comprises three verbs whose past definite is in *us* (*courir*=to run; *mourir*, to die, which make *cour*-us and *mour*-us, and *gésir*=to lie [*jacere*], whose past definite, now obsolete, was *il jut*). They are divided into two categories, so far as the past participle is concerned: The one forms its participle by accenting the stem of the verb, as *mort*, from *mourir*; the other by adding on the ending *u* (*cour*-ir, *cour*-u, and *gésir*, the participle of which was *géü*).

334. The third class of verbs in *ir* forms the past definite by accenting the stem of the verb *ten*-ir, je *tins*), and the past participle by adding the termination u. It comprises only two verbs: *tenir* (je *tins*, *ten*-u), and *ven-ir* (je *vins*, *ven*-u).

On the formation, see, for the past definite, § 331, and, for the past participle, § 289.

335. It remains that we should give in detail the irregular forms of all these verbs: **Acquérir** (= to acquire).—*Prim. Tenses:* acquérir, acquérant, acquis, j'acquiers, j'acquis.

Ind. Pres., j'acquiers, tu acquiers, il *or* elle acquiert, nous acquérons, vous acquérez, ils *or* elles acquièrent.
Imperf., j'acquérais, etc., nous acquérions, etc.
Past Def., j'acquis, etc., nous acquîmes, etc.
Fut., j'acquerrai, tu acquerras, il *or* elle acquerra, nous acquerrons, vous acquerrez, ils *or* elles acquerront.
Cond. Pres., j'acquerrais, etc., nous acquerrions, etc.
Imper., acquiers, acquérons, acquérez.
Subj. Pres., que j'acquière, que tu acquières, qu'il *or* qu'elle acquière, que nous acquérions, que vous acquériez, qu'ils *or* qu'elles acquièrent.
Imperf., que j'acquisse, etc., que nous acquissions, etc.
Infin., acquérir.
Part., acquérant, acquis, acquise.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

336. Bouillir (= to boil). *Prim. Tenses:* bouillir, bouillant, bouilli, je bous, je bouillis.

Ind. Pres., je bous, tu bous, il *or* elle bout, nous bouillons, vous bouillez, ils *or* elles bouillent.
Imperf., je bouillais, etc., nous bouillions, etc.
Past. Def., je bouillis, etc., nous bouillîmes, etc.
Fut., je bouillirai, etc., nous bouillirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je bouillirais, nous bouillirions, etc.
Imp., bous, bouillons, bouillez.
Subj. Pres., que je bouille, que tu bouilles, qu'il *or* qu'elle bouille, que nous bouillions, que vous bouilliez, qu'ils *or* qu'elles bouillent.

Imperf., que je bouillisse, etc., que nous bouillissions, etc.
Infin., bouillir.
Part., bouillant, bouilli, bouillie.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

N.B.—*Bouillir* is essentially a neuter verb, and *to boil*, used actively, is rendered by the verb *faire* (= to make) and *bouillir*, as: boil these vegetables = *faites bouillir* ces légumes.

337. Courir (= to run). *Prim. Tenses:* courir, courant, couru, je cours, je courus.

Ind. Pres., je cours, tu cours, il *or* elle court, nous courons, vous courez, ils *or* elles courent.
Imperf., je courais, etc., nous courions, etc.
Past Def., je courus, etc., nous courûmes, etc.
Fut., je courrai, tu courras, il *or* elle courra, nous courrons, vous courrez, ils *or* elles courront.
Cond. Pres., je courrais, etc., nous courrions, etc.
Imp., cours, courons, courez.
Subj. Pres., que je coure, que tu coures, qu'il *or* qu'elle coure, que nous courions, que vous couriez, qu'ils *or* qu'elles courent.
Imperf., que je courusse, etc., que nous courussions, etc.
Infin., courir.
Part., courant, couru, courue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

338. Cueillir (= to pluck). *Prim. Tenses:* cueillir, cueillant, cueilli, je cueille, je cueillis.

Ind. Pres., je cueille, tu cueilles, il *or* elle cueille, nous cueillons, vous cueillez, ils *or* elles cueillent.
Imperf., je cueillais, etc., nous cueillions, etc.
Past Def., je cueillis, etc., nous cueillîmes, etc.
Fut., je cueillerai, etc., nous cueillerons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je cueillerais, etc., nous cueillerions, etc.
Imper., cueille, cueillons, cueillez.
Subj. Pres., que je cueille, etc., que nous cueillions, etc.
Imperf., que je cueillisse, etc., que nous cueillissions, etc.

Infin., cueillir.
Part., cueillant, cueilli, cueillie.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

339. Dormir (= to sleep). *Prim. Tenses:* dormir, dormant, dormi, je dors, je dormis. See *Mentir*. *Conjugated with the auxiliary* **avoir.**

340. Faillir (= to fail).—Several tenses of this verb, such as the *indicative present, imperfect,* and *future,* are seldom used.

Ind. Pres., je faux, tu faux, il *or* elle faut, nous faillons, vous faillez, ils *or* elles faillent.
Imperf., je faillais, tu faillais, il *or* elle faillait, nous faillions, vous failliez, ils *or* elles faillaient.
Past Def., je faillis, etc., nous faillîmes, etc.
Fut., je faillirai, etc., nous faillirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je faillirais, etc., nous faillirions, etc.
Imper., faille, ... faillez.
Subj. Pres., que je faille, etc., que nous faillions, etc.
Imperf., que je faillisse, etc., que nous faillissions, etc.
Infin., faillir.
Part., faillant, failli.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

The first three persons of the singular, *je faux, tu faux, il faut,* have fallen almost entirely into disuse; they still occur, however, in the expressions: *le cœur me faut* (me manque) = my heart fails me; —*au bout de l'aune faut le drap*—that is to say, at the end of the yard the cloth fails (*au bout de l'aune finit, manque, le drap,* proverb for *toutes choses ont leur fin* = all things come to an end).

341. Férir (= to strike) has preserved only the past participle *féru*.

Férir, from the Latin *ferire,* frapper, to strike. It survives in the expression *sans coup férir* = without striking a blow: "d'Harcourt prit Turin *sans coup férir*" = d'Harcourt took Turin without striking a blow.—The old language had the complete conjugation of *férir,* saying in the indicative present je *fier* (ferio), tu *fiers* (feris), il *fiert* (ferit), which last expression occurs in certain heraldic

mottoes; thus the Solar family had for its motto: "Tel *fiert* qui ne tue pas" (Tel *frappe*, qui souvent manque son coup = many a one strikes, but falls short of his aim), etc....; in the imperfect *férais* (feriebam), in the participle *férant* (ferientem).

342. Fuir (= to flee). *Prim. Tenses:* fuir, fuyant, fui, je fuis, je fuis.

Ind. Pres., je fuis, tu fuis, il *or* elle fuit, nous fuyons, vous fuyez, ils *or* elles fuient.
Imperf., je fuyais, etc., nous fuyions, etc.
Past. Def., je fuis, etc., nous fuîmes, etc.
Fut., je fuirai, etc., nous fuirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je fuirais, etc., nous fuirions, etc.
Imper., fuis, fuyons, fuyez.
Subj. Pres., que je fuie, etc., que nous fuyions, que vous fuyiez, qu'ils *or* qu'elles fuient.
Imperf., que je fuisse, etc., que nous fuissions, etc.
Infin., fuir.
Part., fuyant, fui, fuie.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

343. Gésir (= to lie down).—This verb is no longer used in the infinitive; the following are the only parts employed; il gît, nous gisons, ils gisent; il gisait; gisant. Ci-gît (= *here lies*) is used in epitaphs.

344. Mentir (= to tell lies). *Prim. Tenses:* mentir, mentant, menti, je mens, je mentis.

Ind. Pres., je mens, tu mens, il *or* elle ment, nous mentons, vous mentez, ils *or* elles mentent.
Imperf., je mentais, etc., nous mentions, etc.
Past Def., je mentis, etc., nous mentîmes, etc.
Fut., je mentirai, etc., nous mentirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je mentirais, etc., nous mentirions, etc.
Imper., mens, mentons, mentez.
Subj. Pres., que je mente, etc., que nous mentions, etc.
Imperf., que je mentisse, etc., que nous mentissions, etc.
Infin., mentir.

Part., mentant, menti.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

345. Mourir (= to die). *Prim. Tenses:* mourir, mourant, mort, je meurs, je mourus.

Ind. Pres., je meurs, tu meurs, il *or* elle meurt, nous mourons, vous mourez, ils *or* elles meurent.
Imperf., je mourais, etc.; nous mourions, etc.
Past Def., je mourus, etc., nous mourûmes, etc.
Fut., je mourrai, etc., nous mourrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je mourrais, etc., nous mourrions, etc.
Imper., meurs, mourons, mourez.
Subj. Pres., que je meure, etc., que nous mourions, que vous mouriez, qu'ils meurent.
Imperf., que je mourusse, etc., que nous mourussions, etc.
Infin., mourir.
Part., mourant, mort, morte.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **être.**

346. Offrir (= to offer). *Prim. Tenses:* offrir, offrant, offert, j'offre, j'offris.

Ind. Pres., j'offre, tu offres, il *or* elle offre, nous offrons, vous offrez, ils *or* elles offrent.
Imperf., j'offrais, etc., nous offrions, etc.
Past. Def., j'offris, etc., nous offrîmes, etc.
Fut., j'offrirai, etc., nous offrirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., j'offrirais, etc., nous offririons, etc.
Imper., offre, offrons, offrez.
Subj. Pres., que j'offre, etc., que nous offrions, etc.
Imperf., que j'offrisse, etc., que nous offrissions, etc.
Infin., offrir.
Part., offrant, offert, offerte.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

347. Ouïr (= to hear).—This verb is used only in the *inf. pres.*, ouïr; the *part. past.*, ouï; the *past def.*, j'ouïs, tu ouïs, etc.; the *imperf. subj.*, que j'ouïsse, que tu ouïsses, etc. *Conjugated with the auxiliary* **avoir.**

Ouïr, from the Latin *au(d)ire*, entendre=to hear, was conjugated throughout in Old French: j'*ouïs* (audio), j'*oyais* (au[d]iébam), future j'*orrai*, participles *oyant* (au[d]iéntem), *ouï* (au[d]itus). The future *orra*, now forgotten, still existed in the seventeenth century: *Et le peuple lassé des fureurs de la guerre, Si ce n'est pour danser, n'orra plus de tambours*="and the people, weary of the horrors of war, shall hear no more drums, except for the purpose of dancing" (Malherbe). The imperfect *oyais* is also used with a comic intention by J. B. Rousseau in an epigram:

"Par passe-temps un cardinal *oyait*
Lire les vers de Psyché, comédie,
Et les *oyant*, pleurait et larmoyait."

="A certain Cardinal, in order to while away the time, heard the reading of Psyche, a comedy; and, as he heard, he wept and cried." The past participle subsists in law language: (*Ouïe la lecture de l'arrêt*.. =la lecture de l'arrêt *entendue*...=the reading of the sentence being heard).

348. Ouvrir (=open). *Prim. Tenses:* ouvrir, ouvrant, ouvert, j'ouvre, j'ouvris. See *Offrir*. *Conjugated with the auxiliary* **avoir**.

349. Partir (=to set out). *Prim. Tenses:* partir, partant, parti, je pars, je partis. See *Mentir*. *Conjugated with the auxiliary* **être**.

350. Sentir (=to feel). *Prim. Tenses:* sentir, sentant, senti, je sens, je **sentis**. See *Mentir*. *Conjugated with the auxiliary* **avoir**.

351. Sortir (=to go out). *Prim. Tenses:* sortir, sortant, sorti, je sors, je sortis. See *Mentir*. *Conjugated with the auxiliary* **être**.

352. Souffrir (=to suffer). *Prim. Tenses:* souffrir, souffrant, souffert, je souffre, je souffris. See *Offrir*. *Conjugated with the auxiliary* **avoir**.

353. Tenir (=to hold). *Prim. Tenses:* tenir, tenant, tenu,

je tiens, je tins. See *Venir*. *Conjugated with the auxiliary* **avoir.**

354. Tressaillir (= to start). *Prim. Tenses:* tressaillir, tressaillant, tressailli, je tressaille, je tressaillis.

Ind. Pres., je tressaille, tu tressailles, il tressaille, nous tressaillons, vous tressaillez, ils tressaillent.
Imperf., je tressaillais, etc., nous tressaillions, etc.
Past Def., je tressaillis, etc., nous tressaillîmes, etc.
Fut., je tressaillirai, etc., nous tressaillirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je tressaillirais, etc., nous tressaillirions, etc.
Imper., tressaille, tressaillons, tressaillez.
Subj. Pres., que je tressaille, etc., que nous tressaillions, etc.
Imperf., que je tressaillisse, etc., que nous tressaillissions, etc.
Infin., tressaillir.
Part., tressaillant, tressailli.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

355. Venir (= to come). *Prim. Tenses:* venir, venant, venu, je viens, je vins.

Ind. Pres., je viens, tu viens, il *or* elle vient, nous venons, vous venez, ils *or* elles viennent.
Imperf., je venais, etc., nous venions, etc.
Past Def., je vins, etc., nous vînmes, etc.
Fut., je viendrai, etc., nous viendrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je viendrais, etc., nous viendrions, etc.
Imper., viens, venons, venez.
Subj. Pres., que je vienne, etc., que nous venions, que vous veniez, qu'ils *or* qu'elles viennent.
Imperf., que je vinsse, etc., que nous vinssions, etc.
Infin., venir.
Part., venant, venu, venue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **être.**

356. Vêtir (= to clothe). *Prim. Tenses:* vêtant, vêtu, je vêts, je vêtis.

Ind. Pres., je vêts, tu vêts, il *or* elle vêt, nous vêtons, vous vêtez, ils *or* elles vêtent.

Imperf., je vêtais, etc., nous vêtions, etc.
Past. Def., je vêtis, etc., nous vêtîmes, etc.
Fut., je vêtirai, etc., nous vêtirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je vêtirais, etc., nous vêtirions, etc.
Imper., vêts, vêtons, vêtez.
Subj. Pres., que je vête, etc., que nous vêtions, etc.
Imperf., que je vêtisse, etc., que nous vêtissions, etc.
Infin., vêtir.
Part., vêtant, vêtu, vêtue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.** (See § 330.)

3. Third conjugation: OIR.

357. The irregular verbs in *oir* are subdivided into two classes: 1° the first forms its past definite in *us*, and its past participle in *u* (*valoir* = to be worth; *valus*, *valu*), but is different from the regular conjugation, inasmuch as the stem of the verb varies in each of the several tenses; thus, *savoir* has *sais* in the indicative present, *sus* in the past definite, *sache* in the subjunctive. The detailed list of these irregularities will be found below.

2° The second class comprises the two verbs *asseoir* (to sit) and *voir* (to see), forming their past definite in *is* (*assis*, *vis*), but differing from each other in the past participle (*assis*, *vu*).

358. The irregular verbs of the conjugation in *oir* are the following:

359. Asseoir (= to seat, to place, to sit). *Prim. Tenses:* asseoir, asseyant, assis, j'assieds, j'assis.
Ind. Pres., j'assieds, tu assieds, il assied, nous asseyons, vous asseyez, ils asseyent.
Imperf., j'asseyais, etc., nous asseyions, etc.
Past Def., j'assis, etc., nous assîmes, etc.
Fut., j'assiérai, etc., nous assiérons, etc.; the French also say: j'asseyerai, etc., nous asseyerons, etc.
Cond. Pres., j'assiérais, etc., nous assiérions, etc.; also: j'asseyerais, etc., nous asseyerions, etc.
Imper., assieds, asseyons, asseyez.

Subj Pres., que j'asseye, etc., que nous asseyions, que vous asseyiez, qu'ils asseyent.

Imperf., que j'assisse, etc., que nous assissions, etc.

Infin., asseoir.

Part., asseyant, assis.

The verb asseoir is also conjugated as follows:

Ind. Pres., j'assois, tu assois, il assoit, nous assoyons, vous assoyez, ils assoient.

Imperf., j'assoyais, etc.; but this manner is not used in written language.

The verb *surseoir* = to postpone, follows this second form.

Conjugated with the auxiliary être when used as a *reflexive* verb, *s'asseoir* = to sit down.

360. Choir (= to fall). Employed only in the infinitive, and in a limited number of cases.

In the Old French it was conjugated throughout (*chois, chéais, cherrai, chut, chéant, chu*). Even as late as the seventeenth century we find the future *cherrai:* "Tirez la chevillette, et la bobinette *cherra*" (= "pull the peg and the bobbin will fall"—Perrault),—the past definite *chut:* "Cet insolent *chut* du ciel en terre" (= "that insolent angel fell from heaven to earth"—Bossuet, *Démons.* II., 2),—the past participle *chu:*

> "Nous l'avons, en dormant, madame, échappé belle,
> Un monde près de nous a passé tout du long,
> Est *chu* tout au travers de notre tourbillon"

(= "whilst we were asleep, madam, we have had a narrow escape; a world passed quite close to us, and fell right through our system."—Molière, *Femmes savantes*).

361. Déchoir (= to decay, fall). *Prim. Tenses*, déchoir, déchu, je déchois, je déchus.

Ind. Pres., je déchois, tu déchois, il déchoit, nous déchoyons, vous déchoyez, ils déchoient.

Imperf., je déchoyais, etc., nous dechoyions, etc.

Past Def., je déchus, etc., nous déchûmes, etc.

Fut., je décherrai, etc., nous décherrons, etc.

Cond. Pres., je décherrais, etc., nous décherrions, etc.

Imper., déchois, déchoyons, déchoyez.

Subj. Pres., que je déchoie, etc., que nous déchoyions, que vous déchoyiez, qu'ils déchoient.
Imperf., que je déchusse, etc., que nous déchussions, etc.
Infin., déchoir.
Part., *no pres. part.*, déchu, déchue.
Conjugated with **avoir** when it expresses an action, and with **être** when it denotes a state.

362. Échoir (= to fall due). *Prim. Tenses*, échoir, échéant, échu, il échoit, j'échus. Conjugated as *déchoir*.—Used only in the *part. pres.*, échéant; the *part. past.*, échu; the *indic. pres.*, third person, il échoit (pronounced and often written *échet*); the *past def.*, j'échus, etc.; the *fut.*, j'écherrai, etc.; the *cond. pres.*, j'écherrais, etc.; the *imperf, subj.*, que j'échusse, etc. No *pres. part.*
Conjugated with **avoir** or **être**. See *déchoir*.

363. Falloir (= to be necessary). *Prim. Tenses;* falloir, fallu, il faut, il fallut.
Ind. Pres., il faut.
Imperf., il fallait.
Past Def., il fallut.
Fut., il faudra.
Cond. Pres., il faudrait.
Subj. Pres., qu'il faille.
Imperf., qu'il fallût.
Infin., falloir.
Part., no *pres. part.*, fallu.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir**.

364. Mouvoir (= to move). *Prim. Tenses:* mouvoir, mouvant, mû, je meus, je mus.
Ind. Pres., je meus, tu meus, il meut, nous mouvons, vous mouvez, ils meuvent.
Imperf., je mouvais, etc., nous mouvions, etc.
Past Def., je mus, etc., nous mûmes, etc.
Fut., je mouvrai, etc., nous mouvrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je mouvrais, etc., nous mouvrions, etc.
Imper., meus, mouvons, mouvez.

Subj. Pres., que je meuve, que tu meuves, qu'il meuve, que nous mouvions, que vous mouviez, qu'ils meuvent.
Imperf., que je musse, etc., que nous mussions, etc.
Infin., mouvoir.
Part., mouvant, mû, mue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

365. Pleuvoir (= to rain). *Prim. Tenses:* pleuvoir, pleuvant, plu, il pleut, il plut.
Ind. Pres., il pleut.
Imperf., il pleuvait.
Past. Def., il plut.
Fut., il pleuvra.
Cond. Pres., il pleuvrait.
Subj. Pres., qu'il pleuve.
Imperf., qu'il plût.
Infin., pleuvoir.
Part., pleuvant, plu.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

366. Pouvoir (= to be able). *Prim. Tenses:* pouvoir, pouvant, pu, je peux, *or* je puis, je pus.
Ind. Pres., je peux *or* je puis,* tu peux, il peut, nous pouvons, vous pouvez, ils peuvent.
Imperf., je pouvais, etc., nous pouvions, etc.
Past Def., je pus, etc., nous pûmes, etc.
Fut., je pourrai, etc., nous pourrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je pourrais, etc., nous pourrions, etc.
Imper., none.
Subj. Pres., que je puisse, etc., que nous puissions, etc.
Imperf., que je pusse, etc., que nous pussions, etc.
Infin., pouvoir.
Part., pouvant, pu.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

367. Savoir (= to know). *Prim. Tenses:* savoir, sachant, su, je sais, je sus.

* *Puis* is the only form used in the interrogative conjugation (*for the first person*)—*Puis-je ?* can I ?

Ind. Pres., je sais, tu sais, il sait, nous savons, vous savez, ils savent.
Imperf., je savais, etc., nous savions, etc.
Past Def., je sus, etc., nous sûmes, etc.
Fut., je saurai, etc., nous saurons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je saurais, etc., nous saurions, etc.
Imper., sache, sachons, sachez.
Subj. Pres., que je sache, etc., que nous sachions, etc.
Imperf., que je susse, etc., que nous sussions, etc.
Infin., savoir.
Part., sachant, su, sue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

In the Old French *savoir* was *saver*, from the Latin *sapere*. This form *saver* gave the future *saver-ai*, which, contracted later into *savrai* (as *recevoir* into *recevrai*, *devoir* into *devrai*, etc.), became in the fourteenth century *saurai*, as *habere* has given *aver-ai*, then *avrai*, and finally *aurai*.

368. Seoir.—In the sense of to be seated (*être assis*) this verb is obsolete. It is sometimes used in the present participle, *séant*, and the past participle *sis*, *sise*. When meaning to be becoming (*être convenable*) it is still used in certain tenses, and always in the third person singular or plural: il sied, ils siéent, il seyait, il siéra.

369. Valoir (= to be worth). *Prim. Tenses:* valoir, valant, valu, je vaux, je valus.

Ind. Pres., je vaux, tu vaux, il vaut, nous valons, vous valez, ils valent.
Imperf., je valais, etc., nous valions, etc.
Past. Def., je valus, etc., nous valûmes, etc.
Fut., je vaudrai, etc., nous vaudrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je vaudrais, etc., nous vaudrions, etc.
Imper., vaux, valons, valez.
Subj. Pres., que je vaille, que tu vailles, qu'il vaille, que nous valions, que vous valiez, qu'ils vaillent.
Imperf., que je valusse, etc., que nous valussions, etc.
Infin., valoir.

Part., valant, valu.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir**.

The compounds of this verb are conjugated in the same manner, with the exception of *prévaloir* = to prevail, whose *subj. pres.* is *que je prévale*, etc., *que nous prévalions*, etc.

370. Voir (= to see). *Prim. Tenses:* voir, voyant, vu, je vois, je vis.
Ind. Pres., je vois, tu vois, il voit, nous voyons, vous voyez, ils voient.
Imperf., je voyais, etc., nous voyions, etc.
Past. Def., je vis, etc., nous vîmes, etc.
Fut., je verrai, etc., nous verrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je verrais, etc., nous verrions, etc.
Imper., vois, voyons, voyez.
Subj. Pres., que je voie, etc., que nous voyions, etc.
Imperf., que je visse, etc., que nous vissions, etc.
Infin., voir.
Part., voyant, vu, vue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir**.

N.B.—*Pourvoir* = to provide, and *prévoir* = to foresee, make in the *fut.* and *cond. je pourvoirai, je pourvoirais*, and *je prévoirai, je prévoirais*. Besides, the *past def.* and *imperf. subj.* of *pourvoir* are *je pourvus, que je pourvusse*.

371. Vouloir (= to will, to be willing). *Prim. Tenses:* vouloir, voulant, voulu, je veux, je voulus.
Ind. Pres., je veux, tu veux, il veut, nous voulons, vous voulez, ils veulent.
Imperf., je voulais, etc., nous voulions, etc.
Past. Def., je voulus, etc., nous voulûmes, etc.
Fut., je voudrai, etc., nous voudrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je voudrais, etc., nous voudrions, etc.
Imper., veuille, veuillons, veuillez. (The *Imper. proper:* veux, voulons, voulez, *is seldom used.*)
Subj. Pres., que je veuille, etc., que nous voulions, que vous vouliez, qu'ils veuillent.

Imperf., que je voulusse, etc., que nous voulussions, etc.
Infin., vouloir.
Part., voulant, voulu, voulue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

4. Fourth conjugation: RE.

372. We have seen (§ 264) that the fourth conjugation consists of about fifty verbs, of which twenty alone follow the regular conjugation given above (§ 295): *romp*re, *romp*ant, *romp*u, *romp*s, *romp*ais, *romp*is. The thirty other verbs are irregular.

373. The irregular verbs in *re* may be subdivided into two classes according to the formation of the past definite: 1st. Verbs with the past definite in *is* (*craindre*=to fear, *craign*is); 2nd. Verbs with the past definite in *us* (*connaître*=to know, *conn*us).

374. The verbs of the first class (past definite in *is*, *craindre*, *craign*is) are further made up of two categories, according to the formation of the past participle:

1st. The first category adds *i* to the stem of the verb in order to have the past participle (*suivre*=to follow, *suivi*).

2nd. The second category accents the root of the verb: *rire*, to laugh, *ri*;—*suffire*=to suffice, *suffi*;—*nuire*=to be hurtful, *nui*;—*conduire*=to conduct, *conduit*;—*confire*=to pickle, *confit*;—*dire*=to say, *dit*;—*écrire*=to write, *écrit*;—*faire*=to make, *fait*;—*oindre*=to anoint, *oint*; *craindre*=to fear, *craint*;—*joindre*=to join, *joint*;—*teindre*=to dye, *teint*;—*prendre*=to take, *pris*;—*mettre*=to put, *mis*; *naître*=to be born, *né*.

We have already explained (§ 331) that if the past participle is accented in *suiv-i*, on the termination, whereas in *ri* (from *rire*=to laugh) the accent is on the stem, the reason is that the same difference existed in Latin: thus *sec*-utus, past participle of *sequi* (*suivre*=to follow), is accented on the termination; *ris*-us, past participle of *ridere* (*rire*=to laugh), has the accent on the stem.

375. The verbs belonging to the **second class** have all *us* and *u* as the termination of the past definite and past participle respectively: *conclure* = to conclude, *conclus*, *conclu*; *plaire* = to please, *plus*, *plu*; *paraître* = to appear, *parus*, *paru*; *boire* = to drink, *bus*, *bu*; *connaître* to know, *connus*, *connu*; *croire* = to believe, *crus*, *cru*; *croître* = to grow, *crus*, *crû*; *lire* = to read, *lus*, *lu*; *moudre* = to grind, *moulus*, *moulu*; *paître*, *repaître* = to feed, *repus*, *repu*; *résoudre* = to resolve, *résolus*, *résolu*; *taire* = to keep secret, *tus*, *tu*; *vivre* = to live, *vécus*, *vécu*.

We have seen above the origin of the forms *us*, *u*. All these irregularities, which cannot be reduced to any common type in the French formation of tenses, are explained by the divergence of the corresponding Latin perfects. We have stated (§§ 327 and following) the general principles of the formation of irregular verbs, and the distinction between strong and weak verbs, which is the basis of their formation. It would be impossible to go into further details without exceeding the limits of an elementary grammar. We must not forget that the purpose of the present book is not to give the historical grammar of the French language, but to utilise, as far as possible, the facts supplied by historical grammar towards the explanation of the rules and exceptions of the practical one.

376. We now add, in alphabetical order, the verbs we have just been studying, with the detail of their irregularities:

377. Absoudre (= to absolve). *Prim. Tenses:* absoudre, absolvant, absous, j'absous, *no past definite.* See *Résoudre.*
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

378. Boire (= to drink). *Prim. Tenses:* boire, buvant, bu, je bois, je bus.
Ind. Pres., je bois, tu bois, il boit, nous buvons, vous buvez, ils boivent.
Imperf., je buvais, etc., nous buvions, etc.
Past Def., je bus, etc., nous bûmes, etc.
Fut., je boirai, etc., nous boirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je boirais, etc., nous boirions, etc.
Imper., bois, buvons, buvez.

Subj. Pres., que je boive, etc., que nous buvions, que vous buviez, qu'ils boivent.
Imperf., que je busse, etc., que nous bussions, etc.
Infin., boire.
Part., buvant, bu, bue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

379. Braire (= to bray).—This verb, according to the "Académie," is used only in the *infinitive*, and in the third person of the *present indicative*, *future*, and *conditional:* braire, il brait, ils braient, il braira, ils brairont, il brairait, ils brairaient.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir**

M. Littré justly protests against this decree of the "Académie" as too severe, and proposes to employ all the forms of the verb which existed in the Old French (il *brayait*, il *a brait*, etc....). *Braire*, in the old language, had the general sense of *crier*, to shout, and was applied to men as well as to animals; it is only at a comparatively recent period that the meaning was limited to the noise made by an ass.

380. Bruire (= to roar, rattle, resound).—This verb has only the following forms: bruire, il bruit, il bruyait, ils bruyaient. *Bruyant* now is rather an adjective than a present participle.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

381. Clore (= to close).—Used only in the *past participle*, clos; the third person singular of the *Ind. pres.*, je clos, tu clos, il clôt; the *fut.*, je clorai, tu cloras, etc.; the *cond. pres.*, je clorais, etc.; the *imper.* singular, clos; *subj. pres.*, que je close; and all compound tenses.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

382. Conclure (= to conclude). *Prim. Tenses:* conclure, concluant, conclu, je conclus, je conclus.
Ind. Pres., je conclus, tu conclus, il conclut, nous concluons, vous concluez, ils concluent.

Imperf., je concluais, etc., nous concluïons, etc.
Past Def., je conclus, etc., nous conclûmes, etc.
Fut., je conclurai, etc., nous conclurons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je conclurais, etc., nous conclurions, etc.
Imper., conclus, concluons, concluez.
Subj. Pres., que je conclue, etc., que nous concluïons, que vous concluïez, qu'ils concluent.
Imperf., que je conclusse, etc., que nous conclussions, etc.
Infin., conclure.
Part., concluant, conclu, conclue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

383. Conduire (= to conduct). *Prim. Tenses:* conduire, conduisant, conduit, je conduis, je conduisis. See *Nuire.*
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

384. Confire (= to pickle). *Prim. Tenses:* confire, confisant, confit, je confis, je confis.
Ind. Pres., je confis, tu confis, il confit, nous confisons, vous confisez, ils confisent
Imperf., je confisais, etc., nous confisions, etc.
Past Def., je confis, etc., nous confîmes, etc.
Fut., je confirai, etc., nous confirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je confirais, etc., nous confirions, etc.
Imper., confis, confisons, confisez.
Subj. Pres., que je confise, etc., que nous confisions, etc.
Imperf., none.
Infin., confire.
Part., confisant, confit, confite.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

385. Connaître (= to know). *Prim. Tenses:* connaître, connaissant, connu, je connais, je connus.
Ind. Pres., je connais, tu connais, il connaît, nous connaissons, vous connaissez, ils connaissent.
Imperf., je connaissais, etc., nous connaissions, etc.
Past Def., je connus, etc., nous connûmes, etc.
Fut., je connaîtrai, etc., nous connaîtrons, etc.

Cond. Pres., je connaîtrais, etc., nous connaîtrions, etc.
Imper., connais, connaissons, connaissez.
Subj. Pres., que je connaisse, etc., que nous connaissions, etc.
Imperf., que je connusse, etc., que nous connussions, etc.
Infin., connaître.
Part., connaissant, connu, connue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

N.B.—Whenever the vowel *i* is followed by *t* in this verb, it takes the circumflex accent: *connaît connaîtrai*, etc.

386. Coudre (= to sew). *Prim. Tenses:* coudre, cousant, cousu, je couds, je cousis.
Ind. Pres., je couds, tu couds, il coud, nous cousons, vous cousez, ils cousent.
Imperf., je cousais, etc., nous cousions, etc.
Past Def., je cousis, etc., nous cousîmes, etc.
Fut., je coudrai, etc., nous coudrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je coudrais, etc., nous coudrions, etc.
Imper., couds, cousons, cousez.
Subj. Pres., que je couse, etc., que nous cousions, etc.
Imperf., que je cousisse, etc., que nous cousissions, etc.
Infin., coudre.
Part., cousant, cousu, cousue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

387. Craindre (= to fear). *Prim. Tenses:* craindre, craignant, craint, je crains, je craignis.
Ind. Pres., je crains, tu crains, il craint, nous craignons, vous craignez, ils craignent.
Imperf., je craignais, etc., nous craignions, etc.
Past Def., je craignis, etc, nous craignîmes, etc.
Fut., je craindrai, etc., nous craindrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je craindrais, etc., nous craindrions, etc.
Imper., crains, craignons, craignez.
Subj. Pres., que je craigne, etc., que nous craignions, que vous craigniez, qu'ils craignent.
Imperf., que je craignisse, etc., que nous craignissions, etc.
Infin., craindre.

Part., craignant, craint, crainte.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

388. Croire (= to believe). *Prim. Tenses:* croire, croyant, cru, je crois, je crus.

Ind. Pres., je crois, tu crois, il croit, nous croyons, vous croyez, ils croient.
Imperf., je croyais, etc., nous croyions, etc.
Past Def., je crus, etc., nous crûmes, etc.
Fut., je croirai, etc., nous croirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je croirais, etc., nous croirions, etc.
Imper., crois, croyons, croyez.
Subj. Pres., que je croie, etc., que nous croyions, que vous croyiez, qu'ils croient.
Imperf., que je crusse, etc., que nous crussions, etc.
Infin., croire.
Part., croyant, cru, crue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

389. Croître (= to grow). *Prim. Tenses:* croître, croissant, crû, je crois, je crus.

Ind. Pres., je crois, tu crois, il croît, nous croissons, vous croissez, il croissent.
Imperf., je croissais, etc., nous croissions, etc.
Past Def., je crûs, etc., nous crûmes, etc.
Fut., je croîtrai, etc., nous croîtrons, etc.
Cond. Pres, je croîtrais, etc., nous croîtrions, etc.
Imper., crois, croissons, croissez.
Subj. Pres., que je croisse, etc., que nous croissions, etc.
Imperf., que je crusse, etc., que nous crussions, etc.
Infin., croître.
Part., croissant, crû, crue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**
N.B.—See *Connaître.*

390. Dire (= to say). *Prim. Tenses:* dire, disant, dit, je dis, je dis.

Ind. Pres., je dis, tu dis, il dit, nous disons, vous dites, ils disent.

Imperf., je disais, etc., nous disions, etc.
Past Def., je dis, etc., nous dîmes, etc.
Fut., je dirai, etc., nous dirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je dirais, etc., nous dirions, etc.
Imper., dis, disons, dites.
Subj. Pres., que je dise, etc., que nous disions, etc.
Imperf., que je disse, etc., que nous dissions, etc.
Infin., dire.
Part., disant, dit, dite.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

N.B.—All the compounds of *dire* make *disez* in the second person plural of the *pres. Indic.*, with the exception of *redire* = to repeat, and *maudire* = to curse, which make *redites*, *maudissez.*

391. Éclore (= to be hatched, to open, to dawn).—Limited to the following forms:

Ind. Pres., il éclôt, ils éclosent.
Fut., il éclôra, ils éclôront.
Cond. Pres., il éclôrait, ils éclôraient.
Subj. Pres., qu'il éclose, qu'ils éclosent.
Infin., éclore.
Part pas., éclosant, éclos, éclose.
The compound tenses are conjugated with the auxiliary **être.**

392. Écrire (= to write). *Prim. Tenses:* écrire, écrivant, écrit, j'écris, j'écrivis.

Ind. Pres., j'écris, tu écris, il écrit, nous écrivons, vous écrivez, ils écrivent.
Imperf., j'écrivais, etc., nous écrivions, etc.
Past Def., j'écrivis, etc., nous écrivîmes, etc.
Fut., j'écrirai, etc., nous écrirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., j'écrirais, etc., nous écririons, etc.
Imper., écris, écrivons, écrivez.
Subj. Pres., que j'écrive, etc., que nous écrivions, etc.
Imperf., que j'écrivisse, etc., que nous écrivissions, etc.
Infin., écrire.
Part., écrivant, écrit, écrite.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

393. Faire (= to make *or* to do). *Prim. Tenses:* faire, faisant, fait, je fais, je fis.

Ind. Pres., je fais, tu fais, il fait, nous faisons, vous faites, ils font.
Imperf., je faisais, etc., nous faisions, etc.
Past Def., je fis, etc, nous fîmes, etc.
Fut., je ferai, etc., nous ferons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je ferais, etc., nous ferions, etc.
Imper., fais, faisons, faites.
Subj. Pres., que je fasse, etc., que nous fassions, etc.
Imperf., que je fisse, etc., que nous fissions, etc.
Infin., faire.
Part., faisant, fait, faite.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

394. Frire (= to fry).—This verb, besides the *infin. pres.*, has also the three persons singular of the *ind. pres.*, je fris, tu fris, il frit; the *fut.*, je frirai, etc.; the *cond. pres.*, je frirais, etc.; the second person singular of the *imper.*, fris; the *part. pas.*, frit, frite. The tenses of this verb are more generally made up by placing the verb *faire* before the infinitive *frire* nous faisons frire, vous faites frire.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

395. Joindre (= to join). *Prim. Tenses:* joindre, joignant, joint, je joins, je joignis. See *Craindre.*
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

396. Lire (= to read). *Prim. Tenses:* lire, lisant, lu, je lis, je lus.

Ind. Pres., je lis, tu lis, il lit, nous lisons, vous lisez, ils lisent.
Imperf., je lisais, etc., nous lisions, etc.
Past Def., je lus, etc., nous lûmes, etc.
Fut., je lirai, etc., nous lirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je lirais, etc., nous lirions, etc.
Imper., lis, lisons, lisez.
Subj. Pres, que je lise, etc., que nous lisions, etc.
Imperf., que je lusse, etc., que nous lussions, etc.

Infin., lire.
Part, lisant, lu, lue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

397. Luire (= to shine). *Prim. Tenses:* luire, luisant, lui, je luis, je luisis.

Ind. Pres., je luis, tu luis, il luit, nous luisons, vous luisez, ils luisent.
Imperf., je luisais, etc., nous luisions, etc.
Past Def., je luisis, etc., nous luisimes.
Fut., je luirai, etc., nous luirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je luirais, etc., nous luirions, etc.
Imper., luis, luisons, luisez.
Subj. Pres., que je luise, etc., que nous luisions, etc.
Imperf., que je luisisse, etc., que nous luisissions, etc.
Infin., luire.
Part., luisant, lui.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

398. Mettre (= to place, to put). *Prim. Tenses:* mettre, mettant, mis, je mets, je mis.

Ind. Pres., je mets, tu mets, il met, nous mettons, vous mettez, ils mettent.
Imperf., je mettais, etc., nous mettions, etc.
Past Def., je mis, etc., nous mîmes, etc.
Fut., je mettrai, etc., nous mettrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je mettrais, etc., nous mettrions, etc.
Imper., mets, mettons, mettez.
Subj Pres., que je mette, etc., que nous mettions, etc.
Imperf., que je misse, etc, que nous missions, etc.
Infin., mettre.
Part., mettant, mis, mise.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

399. Moudre (= to grind). *Prim. Tenses:* moudre, moulant, moulu, je mouds, je moulus.

Ind. Pres., je mouds, tu mouds, il moud, nous moulons, vous moulez, ils moulent.
Imperf., je moulais, etc., nous moulions, etc.

Past Def., je moulus, etc., nous moulûmes, etc.
Fut., je moudrai, etc., nous moudrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je moudrais, etc., nous moudrions, etc.
Imper., mouds, moulons, moulez.
Subj. Pres., que je moule, etc., que nous moulions, etc.
Imperf., que je moulusse, etc., que nous moulussions, etc.
Infin, moudre.
Part., moulant, moulu, moulue.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

400. Naître (= to be born). *Prim. Tenses:* naître, naissant, né, je nais, je naquis.

Ind. Pres., je nais, tu nais, il naît, nous naissons, vous naissez, ils naissent.
Imperf., je naissais, etc., nous naissions, etc.
Past Def., je naquis, etc., nous naquîmes, etc.
Fut., je naîtrai, etc., nous naîtrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je naîtrais, etc., nous naîtrions, etc.
Imper., nais, naissons, naissez.
Subj. Pres., que je naisse, etc., que nous naissions, etc.
Imperf., que je naquisse, etc., que nous naquissions, etc.
Infin., naître.
Part., naissant, né, née.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **être.** *See Connaître.*

401. Nuire (= to injure, to be hurtful). *Prim. Tenses:* nuire, nuisant, nui, je nuis, je nuisis.

Ind. Pres., je nuis, tu nuis, il nuit, nous nuisons, vous nuisez, ils nuisent.
Imperf., je nuisais, etc., nous nuisions, etc.
Past Def., je nuisis, etc., nuisîmes, etc.
Fut., je nuirai, etc., nous nuirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je nuirais, etc., nous nuirions, etc.
Imper., nuis, nuisons, nuisez.
Subj. Pres., que je nuise, etc., que nous nuisions, etc.
Imperf., que je nuisisse, etc., que nous nuisissions, etc.
Infin., nuire.
Part., nuisant, nui.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

402. Oindre (=to anoint). *Prim. Tenses:* oindre, oignant, oint, j'oins, j'oignis.

Ind. Pres., j'oins, etc., nous oignons, etc.
Imperf., j'oignais, etc., nous oignions, etc.
Past Def., j'oignis, etc., nous oignîmes, etc.
Fut., j'oindrai, etc., nous oindrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., j'oindrais, etc., nous oindrions, etc.
Imper., oins, --, oignez.
Subj. Pres., que j'oigne, etc., que nous oignions, etc.
Imperf., que j'oignisse, etc., que nous oignissions, etc.
Infin., oindre.
Part., oint, ointe.

Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

403. Paître (=to graze). *Prim. Tenses:* paître, paissant, —, je pais, —.

Ind. Pres., je pais, tu pais, il paît, nous paissons, vous paissez, ils paissent.
Imperf., je paissais, etc., nous paissions, etc.
Fut., je paîtrai, etc., nous paîtrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je paîtrais, etc., nous paîtrions, etc.
Imper., pais, paissons, paissez.
Subj. Pres., que je paisse, etc., que nous paissions, etc.
Infin., paître.
Part., paissant.

This verb has neither *past defin.*, *imperf. subjunctive*, nor *past participle.*

Repaître is conjugated like **paître**; but it has both a *past def.:* je repus, and a *past participle:* repu.

The simple participle *pu* is still used as a term of falconry (un faucon qui a *pu* = a hawk which has been fed).

404. Paraître (=to appear). *Prim. Tenses:* paraître, paraissant, paru, je parais, je parus. See *Connaître.*

405. Peindre (=to paint). *Prim. Tenses:* peindre, peignant, peint, je peins, je peignis. See *Craindre.*

406. Plaire (= to please). *Prim. Tenses*: **plaire, plaisant, plu,** je plais, je plus.

Ind. Pres., je plais, tu plais, il plaît, nous plaisons, vous plaisez, ils plaisent.
Imperf., je plaisais, etc., nous plaisions, etc.
Past. Def., je plus, etc., nous plûmes, etc.
Fut., je plairai, etc., nous plairons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je plairais, etc., nous plairions, etc.
Imper., plais, plaisons, plaisez.
Subj. Pres., que je plaise, etc., que nous plaisions., etc.
Imperf., que je plusse, etc., que nous plussions, etc.
Infin., plaire.
Part., plaisant, plu.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

407. Prendre (= to take). *Prim. Tenses:* prendre, prenant, pris, je prends, je pris.

Ind. Pres., je prends, tu prends, il prend, nous prenons, vous prenez, ils prennent.
Imperf., je prenais, etc., nous prenions, etc.
Past Def., je pris, etc., nous prîmes, etc.
Fut., je prendrai, etc., nous prendrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je prendrais, etc., nous prendrions, etc.
Imper., prends, prenons, prenez.
Subj. Pres. que je prenne, etc., que nous prenions, que vous preniez, qu'ils prennent.
Imperf., que je prisse, etc., que nous prissions, etc.
Infin., prendre.
Part., prenant, pris, prise.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

408. Résoudre (= to resolve). *Prim. Tenses:* résoudre, résolvant, résolu, je résous, je résolus.

Ind. Pres., je résous, tu résous, il résout, nous résolvons vous résolvez, ils résolvent.
Imperf., je résolvais, etc., nous résolvions, etc.
Past Def., je résolus, etc., nous résolûmes, etc.
Fut., je résoudrai, etc., nous résoudrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je résoudrais, etc., nous résoudrions, etc.

Imper., résous, résolvons, résolvez.
Subj. Pres., que je résolve, etc., que nous résolvions, etc.
Imperf., que je résolusse, etc., que nous résolussions, etc.
Infin., résoudre.
Part., résolvant, résolu, résolue, *or* résous (we still say *brouillard* résous *en pluie*, a fog resolved into rain).
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

409. Rire (= to laugh). *Prim. Tenses:* rire, riant, ri, je ris, je ris.

Ind. Pres., je ris, tu ris, il rit, nous rions, vous riez, ils rient,
Imperf., je riais, etc., nous riions, etc.
Past Def., je ris, etc., nous rîmes, etc.
Fut., je rirai, etc., nous rirons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je rirais, etc., nous ririons, etc.
Imper., ris, rions, riez.
Subj. Pres., que je rie, que tu ries, qu'il rie, que nous riions, que vous riiez, qu'ils rient.
Imperf., que je risse, etc., que nous rissions, etc.
Infin., rire.
Part., riant, ri.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

410. Suivre (= to follow). *Prim. Tenses:* suivre, suivant, suivi, je suis, je suivis.

Ind. Pres., je suis, tu suis, il suit, nous suivons, vous suivez, ils suivent.
Imperf., je suivais, etc., nous suivions, etc.
Past. Def., je suivis, etc., nous suivîmes, etc.
Fut., je suivrai, etc., nous suivrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je suivrais, etc., nous suivrions, etc.
Imper., suis, suivons, suivez.
Subj. Pres., que je suive, etc., que nous suivions, etc.
Imperf., que je suivisse, etc., que nous suivissions, etc.
Infin., suivre.
Part., suivant, suivi, suivie.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

411. Taire (= to keep silent, to conceal). *Prim. Tenses:* taire, taisant, tu, je tais, je tus. See *Plaire.*

Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

412. Traire (= to milk). *Prim. Tenses:* traire, trayant, trait, je trais, no *past def.*

Ind. Pres., je trais, tu trais, il trait, nous trayons, vous trayez, ils traient.

Imperf., je trayais, etc., nous trayions, etc.

Fut., je trairai, etc., nous trairons, etc.

Cond. Pres., je trairais, etc., nous trairions, etc.

Imper., trais, trayons, trayez.

Subj. Pres., que je traie, etc., que nous trayions, que vous trayiez, qu'ils traient.

Infin., traire.

Part., trayant, trait, traite. This verb has neither *past def.* nor *imper. subjunct.*

Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

413. Vaincre (= to conquer). *Prim. Tenses:* vaincre, vainquant, vaincu, je vaincs, je vainquis.

Ind. Pres., je vaincs, tu vaincs, il vainc, nous vainquons, vous vainquez, ils vainquent.

Imperf., je vainquais, etc., nous vainquions, etc.

Past Def., je vainquis, etc., nous vainquîmes, etc.

Fut., je vaincrai, etc., nous vaincrons, etc.

Cond. Pres., je vaincrais, etc., nous vaincrions, etc.

Imper., vaincs, vainquons, vainquez.

Subj. Pres., que je vainque, etc., que nous vainquions, etc.

Imperf., que je vainquisse, etc., que nous vainquissions, etc.

Infin., vaincre.

Part., vainquant, vaincu, vaincue.

Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

414. Vivre (= to live). *Prim. Tenses:* vivre, vivant, vécu, je vis, je vécus.

Ind. Pres., je vis, tu vis, il vit, nous vivons, vous vivez, ils vivent.

Imperf., je vivais, etc., nous vivions, etc.

Past Def., je vécus, etc., nous vécûmes, etc.
Fut., je vivrai, etc., nous vivrons, etc.
Cond. Pres., je vivrais, etc., nous vivrions, etc.
Imper., vis, vivons, vivez.
Subj. Pres., que je vive, etc., que nous vivions, etc.
Imperf., que je vécusse, etc., que nous vécussions, etc.
Infin., vivre.
Part., vivant, vécu.
Conjugated with the auxiliary **avoir.**

SECTION X.

FORMATION OF THE VERBS.

415. The French verbs are formed by the same means as the nouns (see § 91)—that is to say, by *composition*, and by *derivation* (see § 94).

I.—Composition of the verbs.

416. In order to form a French verb by *composition* we place before it—1° a noun: *main*tenir=to maintain (properly *tenir* avec la *main*=to hold with the hand),—2° an adjective employed adverbially or an adverb: *mal* traiter (*traiter* mal=to ill-use),—3° or a prefix: *dé*faire (*dé*... and faire=to undo), *sur*monter (*sur* and *monter*=to surmount).

417. The French form verbs with the help of a substantive and a verb in *main*tenir, *col*porter=to hawk (the *col*porteur= hawker, is properly the man who carries (*porte*) a burden on his neck (*col*); *ver*moulu which is ground (*moulu*) by the action of the worms (*vers*).

In like manner, the Latins formed verbs compounded of a substantive and a verb; thus *manumittere*, from the substantive *manus* (=a hand, in French *main*) and the verb *mittere*=to send.

418. New verbs can be formed in French by adding a prefix to a verb already existing. The most important of the prefixes

are the following: 1° **contre**=against (dire, *contre*dire=to say, to contradict,—signer, *contre*signer=to sign, to countersign); 2° **entre**=between (voir, *entre*voir=to see, to have a glimpse of,—ouvrir, *entr'*ouvrir=to open, to half-open,—aider, *s'entr'*aider=to help, to help one another,—dévorer, *s'entre*dévorer=to devour, to devour one another); 3° **bien**, well (faire, *bien*faire=to do, to do good); 4° **mal**, ill (traiter, *mal*traiter=to treat, to ill-treat,—mener, *mal*mener=to lead, to bully); 5° **més**, prefix of depreciation, Eng. *mis* (allier, *més*allier=to match, to mis-match,—user, *més*user=to use, to misuse); 6° **re**, prefix of return and repetition (changer, *re*changer=to change, to change over again,—venir, *re*venir=to come, to come again,—blanchir, *re*blanchir=to whiten, to whiten over again); 7° **sur**, Eng. *above, over* (mener, to drive, *sur*mener=to overdrive,—chauffer, *sur*chauffer=to heat, to overheat); this prefix implies excess.

We have already studied all these prefixes (except *re* and *més*) in the chapters on the substantives and adjectives. Re is the Latin *re*, which has the same meaning, and expresses return, removal, reciprocity, retrogression, increase.—Més is the Latin *minus* (which signifies *moins* [=less], and also *pas, point* [=not]). *Minus* was used as a prefix with a depreciative sense in the Low Latinity. We find, for instance, *minusfacere* with the sense of *mé*faire, *mal*faire=to do wrong; *minusdicere* gave successively *min's dicere* and *misdicere*, which occur in deeds belonging to the Carlovingian epoch: *misdicere* became in Old French *mes*dire, then *mé*dire, through the dropping of the *s* before a consonant, as also in [se] *mé*fier=to mistrust, *mé*connaître=not to know, *mé*prendre=to mistake, *mé*dire=to slander, *mé*faire=to do evil (from *fier, connaître, prendre, dire, faire*), whilst the *s* persists before a vowel, as in *més*allier=to mismatch, *més*estimer=to undervalue, etc.

II.—Derivation of the verbs.

419. Derived verbs are formed in French with the help of *substantives* already existing, of *adjectives*, or of simple *verbs*.

420. New verbs are formed in French by adding to substantives the termination *er* of the first conjugation. Thus *barricade* (=a barricade), *fourrage* (=forage), *chemin* (=path, road), *crayon* (=pencil), *frisson* (=shudder), give *barricader, four-*

rager, *cheminer*, *crayonner*, *frissonner* (=to barricade, to forage, to journey, to sketch, to shudder). But the most recent words are generally formed with the termination *iser*: germani*ser*, napoléoni*ser*, bonapart*iser* (=to make German, to win over to the cause of Napoleon or Bonaparte).

The Latin language created, in like manner, with the help of substantives, fresh verbs belonging to the first conjugation: *querelare*, from *querela* (=a complaint), etc.—The termination *iser* comes from the Latin *izare*, *issare*, itself borrowed from the Greek. This suffix amongst the Romans expressed, in the first instance, imitation (*græc*issare=to imitate the Greeks; *attic*issare=to speak like an Athenian); it came soon afterwards to designate merely the action (*bapt*izare=the action of administering baptism, etc.); from *izare* was derived the French form *iser*.

421. The French language makes up new verbs from *adjectives*—sometimes by the addition of the termination **ir** (*jaune*, *bleu*, *gros* [=yellow, blue, big], give *jaunir*, *bleuir*, *grossir* [to become yellow, blue, big])—sometimes by adding the termination *ir* and prefixing *a* (grand, *a*-grand-*ir*=great, to enlarge; mince, *a*-minc-*ir*=thin, to make thin; maigre, *a*-maigr-*ir*=lean, to become *or* make lean; etc...).

ir is the Latin infinitive *ire* (see § 263). As for the prefix *a*, it represents the Latin *ad*, studied above.

422. The French language creates new verbs with the help of *verbs* already existing, by introducing the true diminutive suffixes *ot*, *on*, *asse* (see §§ 117—118), which give to the words (as we have seen, § 112) a depreciative sense: *cligner*, clign-*ot*-er; *trembler*, trembl-*ot*-er; *chanter*, chant-*onn*-er; *griffer*, griff-*onn*-er; *rêver*, rêv-ass-er (=to wink, to wink repeatedly; to tremble, to shiver; to sing, to hum; to scratch, to scribble; to dream, to muse).

For the origin of these suffixes, see §§ 114, 117, 118.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE PARTICIPLE.

423. For the definitions and the study of the two kinds of participles see §§ 287—290.

CHAPTER VIII.

ON THE ADVERB.

424. An *adverb* is a word placed *near the verb* to mark its sense more precisely: *ce cheval court* **vite** = this horse runs fast; *cet âne marche* **lentement** = this donkey walks slowly. *Vite*, *lentement*, which characterize the running of the horse and the walk of the donkey, are *adverbs*.

The *adverb* may be joined, not only to the verb, but also to an adjective (*des lois* **justement** *sévères* = justly severe laws), or to another adverb (*ce cheval court* **très**-*vite* = this horse runs very fast).

Adverb comes from the Latin *adverbium*, composed from *ad* (=à, auprès=to, near) and *verbum*. It is easy to see how the *adverb*, which serves to modify the verb (*le juge punit* **sévèrement**=the judge punishes severely), can also be employed to modify an *isolated adjective* (as in this phrase: *Sparte avait des lois* **justement** *sévères*=Sparta had justly severe laws). A close survey of the former sentence (*le juge* **punit** *sévèrement*=*a été* **punissant** *sévèrement*) will show that the stress of the adverb lies really not on the verb *a été*, but on the attribute *punissant*, which is a real adjective.

SECTION I.

ON THE MEANING OF ADVERBS.

425. When we speak of an action such as to go = *aller*; to come=*venir*; to eat=*manger*; we can indicate and specify in **eight** different manners the circumstances accompanying it.

We can mark out—1° *the place* where the action occurs (*j'irai* **là**=I shall go there; *tu viendras* **ici**=you will come here);—2° *the time, the moment* of the action (*j'irai* **aujourd'hui**=I shall go to-day; *tu viendras* **demain**=thou wilt come to-morrow);—3° *the manner* in which the action takes place (*j'irai* **tristement**=I shall go sorrowfully; *tu viendras* **gaiement**=thou wilt come cheerfully);—4° *the quantity*—that is to say, the number of times during which the action is accomplished (*j'irai* **peu**=I shall go seldom; *tu reviendras* **encore**=thou wilt return again);—5° we may *ask ourselves* whether the action will take place (**quand** irai-je?=when shall I go? **pourquoi** viendrais-tu?=why shouldst thou come?);—6° we may *affirm, assure* that the action shall take place (**oui**, *j'irai*=yes, I shall go; **si**, *tu viendras*=yes, indeed, you shall come); 7° we may, in like manner, *deny* the action, or assure that it shall not come to pass (**non**, *je n'irai pas*=no, I will not go; *tu* **n'***y viendras* **point**=thou shalt not come there);—8° we may, finally, *doubt* whether the action will or will not occur (*je viendrai* **peut-être**=I shall come perhaps; *il ira* **probablement**=he will probably go).

Hence, in French, eight kinds of adverbs; they are the adverbs of *place*, of *time*, of *manner*, of *quantity*, of *interrogation*, of *affirmation*, of *negation*, and of *doubt*.

I.—Adverbs of place.

426. The principal adverbs of place are: *ici*=here; *là*=there; *y*=here or there; *où*=where; *en*=in; *loin*=far; *ailleurs* ‖ elsewhere; *deçà*=on this side; *delà*=on that side; *partout*=everywhere; *çà*=here; *dessus*=above; *dessous*=beneath; *dedans*=within; *dehors*=without; *devant*=before; *derrière*=behind; etc.—Examples: *Je partirai d'***ici** *pour aller* **partout où** *tu voudras*=I shall start from hence to go wherever thou wilt; *restez* **là**=remain there; *allons* **ailleurs**=let us go elsewhere.

Adverbs of place are either expressed by one word, as *là, y, où, en*;—or compounded of two, as *dedans* (from *de* and *dans*), *partout* (from *par* and *tout*), *dessous* (from *de* and *sous*).

The adverbs expressed by one word are derived: 1° from one single Latin word, as *où* from *ubi*, *en* from *indè*, *y* from *ibi*; or 2° from two Latin words, as *ici* from *ecce hìc*, *çà* from *ecce hàc*, etc.—For the

explanation of all these changes, see Brachet's *Dictionnaire étymologique*.

II.—Adverbs of time.

427. The principal adverbs of time are *quand*=when; *puis*=then; *depuis*=since; *souvent*=often; *toujours*=always; *maintenant*=now; *jamais*=ever; *aujourd'hui*=to-day; *demain*=to-morrow; *hier*=yesterday; *jadis*=formerly; *lors, alors*=then; *longtemps*=for a long time; *enfin*=at last; etc.—Example: *J'irai* **demain,** *et aussi* **souvent** *que tu le voudras*=I shall go to-morrow, and as often as thou wilt.

These adverbs are either expressed by a single word, as *hier, lors, quand, puis*;—or compounded of two words, as *longtemps* (from *long* and *temps*), *aussitôt* (from *aussi* and *tôt*), *ensuite* (from *en* and *suite*).

The adverbs expressed by a single word are derived: 1° sometimes from one single Latin word, as *hier* from *heri*, *quand* from *quando*, *puis* from *post*;—2° sometimes from two Latin words, as *encore* from *hanc horam*, *jadis* from *jam diu*, etc...

III.—Adverbs of manner.

428. The adverbs of *manner* are formed by adding the termination *ment* to a feminine adjective: *Il mourut* **courageuse***ment* = il mourut d'une *manière* courageuse (= he died courageously); *il vécut* **sage***ment* = il vécut d'une *manière* sage (he lived wisely).

EXCEPTIONS:

A. If the feminine adjective ends with two vowels, the last one is cut off: hardi*e* (= bold), hardi*ment* (= boldly), poli*e* (= polite), poli*ment* (= politely), vrai*e* (= true), vrai*ment* (= truly). A circumflex accent should denote that the vowel *e* has been cut off, but the Academy admits it only for the following adverbs: *assidûment* (= assiduously), *crûment* (= crudely, bluntly), *dûment* (= duly), *indûment* (unduly), and *gaîment*, spelt also *gaiement* (gaily, cheerfully).

B. The following adjectives form their adverbs by placing an acute accent over the *e* preceding the termination *-ment:*

aveugle	=blind	aveuglément	=blindly
commun	=common	communément	=commonly
conforme	=conformable	conformément	=conformably
confus	=confused	confusément	=confusedly
diffus	=diffuse	diffusément	=diffusely
énorme	=enormous	énormément	=enormously
exprès	=express	expressément	=expressly
immense	=immense	immensément	=immensely
impuni	=unpunished	impunément	=with impunity
obscur	=dark	obscurément	=darkly
opiniâtre	=obstinate	opiniâtrément	=obstinately
précis	=precise	précisément	=precisely
profond	=deep	profondément	=deeply
uniforme	=uniform	uniformément	=uniformly.

N.B.—The *è open* of the feminine adjective complète (= complete) becomes *é close* in the adverb complétement (= completely).

C. *Brièvement* (= briefly) and *traîtreusement* (= treacherously), commonly used as the adverbs of the adjectives *bref* (= short), and *traître* (= treacherous), are formed in the regular manner from the feminine adjectives *brième* * and *traîtreuse.*

D. The final *l* of *gentil* = pretty (which was the feminine form in Old French, see § 429) not being pronounced, the adverb is spelt *gentiment* = prettily.

The origin of this adverbial formation is well known; the Latin suffixes *è, ter,* which served to form adverbs (prudent*er*, doct*è*, san*è*), disappeared because they were not accented; and, in order to create a class of words bearing grammatically the sign of the adverb, the French language was obliged to have recourse to other suffixes; for that purpose it adopted the substantive *mens,* which assumed in the writings of authors belonging to the imperial epoch the sense of *manner, fashion,* etc. *Bona mente* factum (QUINTILIAN), *Devota mente* tuentur (CLAUDIAN), *iniqua mente* concupiscit (GREGORIUS TURONENSIS), etc. This ablative *mente,* joined on to a *feminine* adjective, gave the French adverb in *ment:* bon*a*-mente=*bonnement*=candidly; car*a*-mente=*chèrement*=dearly; devot*a*-mente=*dévotement*=devoutly.

* *Brief* was the O. Fr. form of the adjective *bref.*

429. The adjectives ending in *ent, ant* form their adverbs in *emment, amment*: prud*ent*, (=prudent), prud*emment* (=prudently),—oblige*ant* (= obliging), oblige*amment* (= obligingly).

EXCEPTIONS:

A. *Lent* (= slow) and *véhément* (= vehement, violent) form their adverbs (lent*ement* = slowly, véhément*ement* = vehemently) according to the general rule (see § 428).

B. The adverbs *notamment* = especially, *nuitamment* = by night, and *sciemment* = knowingly, were formed from the Old French adjectives *notant, nuitant*, and *scient*, which are now obsolete.

The adjectives which had, in Latin, one termination for the masculine and one for the feminine (*bonus, bona*), had likewise two terminations in French (*bon, bonne*); the Latin adjectives with one termination for the masculine and the feminine had, likewise, only one in French: thus *grandis, legalis, prudens, regalis, viridis, fortis, abundans*, etc., gave, in French, the adjectives *grand, loyal, prudent, royal, vert, fort, abondant*, etc., the gender of which was invariable in the old language. With reference to the particular case which occupies us, it results that the adverbs formed from adjectives belonging to the former category (such as *bon, bonne*) always had the feminine ending *e* in the stem: bonn*e*-ment, chèr*e*-ment, dévot*e*-ment; whereas the adverbs derived from adjectives belonging to the latter class (such as *grand, loyal, abondant*) *never* took *e* in the stem: the French of the eleventh century, in accordance with the laws of etymology, said *loyal-ment, grand-ment, fort-ment, abondant-ment*, etc. During the fourteenth century the origin of this distinction was forgotten, and grammarians, not understanding why in certain adverbs the forming adjective was in the feminine, whilst in others it remained (apparently) in the masculine, spelt *loyalement, vilement, grandement*, etc. Adverbs such as *prudemment, obligeamment* (formed from *prudentment, obligeantment*, by a later assimilation of *ntm* into *mm*) are a vestige of the old custom.

430. Adverbs of quality are also formed in French by the occasional use of the *simple adjective* (*chanter* **juste** = to sing in tune; *voir* **clair** = to see distinctly; *parler* **bas** = to speak in a low voice; etc...

These adjectives, doing the duty of adverbs, correspond to the neuter adjectives, such as *facilè*, *benè*, *brevè*, *doctè*, which the Romans employed as adverbs. The number of these adjectives employed adverbially was much greater in the ancient language than it is now. Thus, in the thirteenth century, *aller* **lent**, *agir* **laid**, *aimer* **grand**, etc...., were used instead of *aller* lentement=to walk slowly, *agir* laidement=to act unhandsomely, *aimer* grandement=to love greatly, etc.

431. The adverbs of manner in *ment* have, as their corresponding adjectives, the three degrees of comparison (*clairement*, **plus** *clairement*, **très-***clairement*).

In the same way, the adverbs *loin* (=far), *près* (=near), *tôt* (=soon), *tard* (=late), *vite* (=quickly), *volontiers* (=willingly), make **plus** *loin*, **très-***loin*, **plus** *près*, **très-***près*, etc.

432. The *adjectives* employed as adverbs of quality have likewise the three degrees of comparison (*chanter* juste, **plus** *juste*, **très-***juste*).

433. The adverbs of quality *bien*, *mal*, and *peu* form their degrees of comparison irregularly: **bien** makes *mieux* in the comparative and *le mieux* in the superlative;—**mal** makes *pis* or *plus mal*,—*le pis* or *le plus mal*.

In the same way the Latin *benè* has *melius* for its comparative, and *malè* has for its comparative *pejus*.

IV.—Adverbs of quantity.

434. The principal adverbs of quantity are *assez*, enough; *trop*, too much; *peu*, little; *beaucoup*, much; *très*, very; *tant*, so much; etc....

N.B.—*Peu* makes *moins* in the comparative and *le moins* in the superlative.

Assez (from the Latin *ad* and *satis*) originally had the meaning of *beaucoup*, and was placed after the substantive. During the Middle Ages persons used to say: Je vous donnerai *or et argent assez* (for *beaucoup* d'or et d'argent), *trop assez* (for *beaucoup trop*), *plus assez* (for

(*beaucoup plus*), etc.—Thus *assai* in Italian: *presto* **assai** (præsto adsatis) corresponds to *très-vite* and not to *assez vite*.

Tant (*tantum*); hence: *Autant* (Old French *al-tant*, from *aliud tantum*).

Peu, from the Latin *paucum*, as *Eu* from *Aucum*, *feu* from *focum*, *jeu* from *jocum*. *Moins*, from the Latin *minus*.

Tellement (from *telle* and *ment*; on *telle*, see § 220; and on *ment*, see § 428).

Beaucoup (*beau* and *coup*). This locution is relatively of modern date, and cannot be traced up higher than the fourteenth century. The expression *grand coup* (for *beau coup*) was more frequently used, and particularly the adverb *moult* (*multum*, which we still find in the words *multitude*, from *multitúdinem*); as for the word *coup*, it is *colp* in Old French, and *colp* is simply *colpus*, which we find in the vulgar Latin with the same meaning. "Si quis alterum voluerit occidere, et *colpus* præter fallierit, et ei fuerit adprobatum, 2000 dinarios.... culpabilis judicetur" (*Salic Law*, xvii., 1).—*Colpus*, also written *colphus*, is the Latin *cólăphus*, which signifies *a blow with the fist*, *a box on the ear*, and which has taken the general sense of *blow*.

On the change of *cólăphus* into *col'phus*, *col'pus*, see § 51.

V.—Adverbs of interrogation.

435. The principal are: *pourquoi?* why? *comment?* how? *quand?* when? *combien?* how much? etc...

Pourquoi is a compound of *pour* and *quoi*.—*Comment* is formed from *comme* (O.F. *com*) and the adverbial suffix *ment*, studied in § 428.—*Combien*, in like manner, is formed from the O.F. *com* (comme) and *bien*.—*Quand* is the Latin *quando*.

VI.—Adverbs of affirmation.

436. The principal are: *oui*, yes; *certes*, certainly; *vraiment*, truly; etc...

Certes is the Latin *certè*. On *vraiment*, see § 428. The most important adverb of affirmation is *oui*, originally *oil* (see *Introduction*).

In the Old French language, *hoc* (*est* understood) had given *o* through the dropping of the *h*, as in *or* (hora), *avoir* (habere).

In the thirteenth century, *dire ni o*, *ni non* corresponded to our

modern locution *ne dire ni oui ni non*, to say neither yes nor no.—The compound *hoc-illud* gave *o-il*, the consonant *c* disappearing in *ho*[*c*]*illud*, as it had disappeared in *jo*[*c*]*are*=jouer (to play), *pli*[*c*]*are* =plier (to fold), *pre*[*c*]*are*=prier (to pray), etc.... This *o-il* (hoc illud) had for its corresponding expression *non-il* (non-illud), which has become in Modern French *nenni*, just as *oil* has become *oui*. A few etymologists have attempted to derive *oui* (or, better, *oïl*) from the verb *oüir* (audire), the past participle of which is now *ouï*, forgetting that (1) the past participle of *oüir* was always *oït* (auditus) in the Middle Ages, and that (2) the French adverb of affirmation was always *oïl*. The change from *t* to *l* would be a fact without parallel in the history of the language; now, no etymology is admissible which does not account for all the letters retained, preserved, or disappeared.—Besides, the analogy of *oïl* (hoc illud) and *nennil* (non illud) would suffice alone to establish definitively the etymology from *hoc illud*.

VII.—Adverbs of negation.

437. The principal are: *non, ne, pas, goutte, personne, rien.*

Non comes from the Latin *non*, whence, under another form, the O.F. *nen*, abridged into *ne* in Modern French. Side by side with the two negatives *non* and *ne* there are negative locutions, the history of which is full of interest. Every one knows that in order to give greater strength to the expression of our judgments, we readily support them by a comparison (*pauvre* comme Job [as poor as Job], *fort* comme un lion [as strong as a lion], *féroce* comme un tigre [as fierce as a tiger], etc....), or by using an estimation: "cet objet ne vaut pas un *sou*," this object is not worth a half-penny. The Latins said, in like manner, that such or such a thing was not worth an *as*, a *feather*, a *walnut*, a *hilum* (the black spot in a bean). Hence the expression *ne-hilum*, which has given *ni-hil*. "Nil igitur mors est, ad nos *ne*que pertinet *hilum*" (Lucretius). The adverbial locutions which serve in French to express negation are five in number: *pas, point, goutte, personne, rien*, not to name *mie*, now obsolete, but used till the end of the sixteenth century. 1. *Pas* (from the Latin *passus*, a step). "Ne point faire un *pas*," not to take a step.—2. *Point* (from the Latin *punctum*, a point). "Je ne vois *point*," I don't see even a point.—3. *Mie*: from the Latin *mica*, *miette*=a crumb; *mica* has become *mie* in French, just as *urtica* (ortie=a nettle), *vesica* (vessie=a bladder), *pica* (pie=a magpie), etc.... *Mie* was used

as a negation till the end of the sixteenth century (je ne le vois *mie*); and, already amongst the Latins, *mica* was employed in the same manner. "*Nullaque* mica *salis*" (Martial).—4. *Goutte.* From the Latin *gutta*, a drop, likewise used negatively by the Latins: "Quoi *neque parata gutta* certi consilii" (Plautus). This adverbial locution, formerly in much use (ne *craindre* goutte, n'*aimer* goutte), has been limited, since the seventeenth century, to the two verbs *voir* and *entendre* (n'y voir, n'y entendre goutte=not to see, not to understand at all).—5. *Personne* (from the Latin *persona*). On this word, already studied, see § 78.—6. *Rien* (from the Latin *rem*) was a substantive in the Old French, and preserved the original meaning of *chose*=a thing: la *riens* (res) que j'ai vue est fort belle=the thing which I have seen is very beautiful. Une très-belle *riens* (res)=a very fine thing.—Joined to a negation, it signifies *nihil*, just as *ne. .. personne* signifies *nemo*: Je *ne* fais *rien*, I do nothing.—This use of *rien* is very proper, and the word *rien* lost its natural meaning of *chose*, in order to assume that of *nihil* (as in the sentence "on m'a donné cela pour *rien*," they have given me that for nothing), only through the custom which had obtained of connecting that substantive with *ne* for the purpose of making a negative expression. The history of the word *rien* enables us to understand the following passage from Molière, in which *rien* is both negative and positive:

"Dans le siècle où nous sommes,
On ne donne *rien* pour *rien*."

(=In the present day, nothing is given for nothing).—*L'École des femmes*, ii., 2).

We shall conclude this general observation by remarking that, originally, the adverbial locutions *pas*, *mie*, *goutte*, *point*, etc..., were employed in a perceptible manner—they were placed, we mean, in a comparison where they had a distinctive signification: je ne marche *pas*=I do not walk *a step*; je ne vois *point*=I do not see *a point*; je ne mange *mie*=I do not eat *a crumb*; je ne bois *goutte*=I do not drink *a drop*, etc....

VIII.—Adverbs of doubt.

438. The principal are: *peut-être*(=perhaps), *probablement* =probably).

Peut-être is elliptical for *cela peut être*, and this accounts for the

fact that it can be followed by *que*. (*Peut-être que je viendrai*=*cela peut* être *que je viendrai*=it may be that I shall come.)

CHAPTER IX.

OF THE PREPOSITION.

439. When we say: *il vient* de *Paris*, he comes from Paris we connect the two ideas of *venir* and *Paris* by a word which binds them together, and shows their inter-dependence. The word *de* which serves to bring together two isolated ideas, is called a **preposition.**

Preposition comes from the Latin *præpositionem* (from *præ*, before, and *positionem*, position).

440. The preposition, then, is an invariable word which serves to unite two words by showing the relation in which the one stands to the other.

441. The relations expressed by prepositions are *five* in number: 1° *time* (*avant*=before, *après*=after, *depuis*=since, etc...)—2° *place* (*à*=to, at, *vers*=towards, *dans*=in, *chez*=at *or* in the house of, *devant*=before, *derrière*=behind, etc...)—3° *manner* or *means* (*par*=by, *avec*=with, *sans*=without, *selon*=according to, etc...)—4° *origin* or *cause* (*de*=of, *par*=by, *pour*=for)—5° *tendency towards* or *remoteness from* (*envers*=towards, *pour*=for, *contre*=against, *à*=to, *de*=of, etc....)

442. The prepositions sometimes consist of one word, as *à*, *de*, *dans*, *pour*, *par*, *sur*, and are then called **simple prepositions**; sometimes they are made up of two or more words, as *quant à* (=as for), *à cause de* (=on account of), *vis à vis de* (=opposite), *au-dessus de* (=above, upon), *à l'égard de* (=with regard to), etc., and are then designated **as prepositive locutions.**

I.—Formation of simple prepositions.

443. The French has received from the Latin the greater

number of its simple prepositions, but it has formed several, itself, with the help of French nouns, adjectives, and verbs.

The simple prepositions directly derived from the Latin come :

1° From simple Latin prepositions, as *contre* (contra), *en* (in), *entre* (inter), *outre* (ultra), *par* (per), *pour* (pro), *sans* (sinè), *sur* (super) ;

2° From the reunion of two simple Latin prepositions, as *avant* (from *ab* and *antè*), *envers* (from *in* and *versus*), etc. ;

3° From Latin substantives, as *parmi* (per medium ; literally, *par le milieu*=through the middle). *Chez* comes from the Latin *casa*= a house. The Latin locution *in-casa* became, in the Old French, *en chez :* the French of the thirteenth century said *il est en chez Gautier* (*est in casa Walterii*). The preposition *en* disappeared during the fourteenth century, and people said then, as we do now, *il est chez Gautier ;*

4° From Latin past participles, as *près* (from the participle *pressum* =pressed, close against), etc.

444. The French language has taken from its own stock new prepositions with the help of *substantives*, *adjectives*, and *verbs.* A substantive has helped to form the preposition **malgré** (= in spite of) ; an adjective has contributed the preposition **sauf** (= except, but).

Malgré is derived from the Old French adjective *mal* (=mauvais) and the substantive *gré* (=will).—*Sauf* is the adjective *sauf* (salvus), which occurs in *sain et sauf* (=safe and sound). Sauf *mes intérêts*, *mes intérêts* étant *saufs.*

445. Verbs supply the French language with new prepositions through the imperative and the past and present participles.

446. The prepositions derived from the French imperative are **voici, voilà.** These words are compounded of the adverbs *ci* and *là* (see § 426), and of *voi*, the old imperative of *voir* (we have observed, § 284, that originally the imperative *vois* did not take the *s*). *Voici le loup*=here is the wolf, means, therefore, really, *voyez ici* le loup=see here the wolf ; or le loup *est ici*, *voyez-le*=the wolf is here ; see him.

This locution being made up of the imperative of the verb *voir*, and of the adverbs *ci*, *là*, was separable in the Old French: *voi-me là* (for *me voilà*=here I am). Even in the sixteenth century Rabelais says: *Voy* me *ci* prêt (for *me voici* prêt=here I am ready). The grammarians of the seventeenth century, no longer understanding the sense of this locution, decided that **voici, voilà** were prepositions, and, as such, henceforth inseparable.

447. The most important among the prepositions derived from the past participles are the following: **passé** (=over), **vu** (=considering), **excepté** (=except, save), **attendu** (=considering) (*passé* ce moment=the moment being over; *excepté* cet homme=with the exception of that man; *vu* le danger que nous courons=considering the danger we are running; *attendu* son infirmité=considering his infirmity).

We must add to this list *hormis*, except; in O.F. *hor-mis*—that is to say, *mis hors*=placed outside. In this locution the participle *mis* (missus) was variable; the French of the thirteenth century said: "Cet homme a perdu tous ses enfants, hors *mise* sa fille" (=this man has lost all his children, with the exception of his daughter). In the fifteenth century the participle *mis* was joined on to the adverb *hors*, and the expression *hors mis* became in its turn a preposition.

448. Finally, the French language has borrowed from the verbs *durer*, to last; *pendre*, to hang; *suivre*, to follow; *concerner*, to concern; *toucher*, to touch, etc., through the medium of the present participle, the prepositions **durant, pendant, suivant, concernant, touchant.**—*L'avocat mourut* pendant *le procès* means literally *tandis que le procès était pendant*=the barrister died whilst the lawsuit was pending; *durant sa vie*=*sa vie durant*, as long as his life lasts; *durant le jour*=*pendant que le jour dure*, whilst the day lasts.

The Old French often placed the participle before the noun to which it refers in certain phrases corresponding to the Latin ablative absolute. Thus "*l'esclave fut jeté au feu, voyant le roi*"—that is to say, "en présence du roi, le roi le voyant, *vidente rege*" (the slave was cast into the fire in the presence of the king);—"une des parties vint à mourir *pendant le procès*"—that is to say, "le procès *étant pendant*

[pendente re]" (one of the contending parties happened to die during the trial).

After the sixteenth century these inversions were no longer understood, and for want of knowing the history of the French language, later grammarians mistook these present participles for prepositions.

Durant.—The French Academy is wrong in calling *sa vie durant* (=during his life) an inversion; *durant sa vie*, on the contrary, is the real inversion.

Moyennant, present participle of the old verb *moyenner*, donner les moyens=to supply the means:—"Il échappa *moyennant* votre aide" (votre aide lui en donnant les moyens)=he escaped through your assistance.

Nonobstant (non obstante)=notwithstanding.

Pendant (from the verb *pendre*). *Pendant* l'affaire (pendente re), l'affaire étant *pendante*=whilst the case was in suspense.

II.—Formation of prepositive locutions.

449. They are formed chiefly with the help either of substantives or of adverbs followed by the preposition *de:* thus nouns such as *face, force, cause, faute, milieu*, etc... give the prepositive locutions *en face de* = opposite; *à force de* = by dint of; *à cause de* = on account of; *faute de* = for want of; *au milieu de* = in the midst of; etc...; and adverbs such as *loin, autour, devant*, etc..., give *loin de*=far from; *autour de* = around; *au devant de* = in front of, etc...

Vis-à-vis is a compound of the same kind. The O.F. *vis* (from the Latin *visus*)=visage=the face; hence the locution *vis-à-vis*, which is literally equivalent to *face à face*=face to face.

CHAPTER X.

OF THE CONJUNCTION.

450. The conjunction is an invariable word which serves to unite together two words or two propositions. *Pierre* et *Paul sont frères*=Peter and Paul are brothers; *aimons Dieu* puisqu'*il est bon*=let us love God, since He is good;—**et, puisque** are conjunctions.

Conjunction is from the Latin *conjunctionem* (conjunction, properly *union*).

451. The conjunctions are sometimes one single word, as *et, on, si, mais*, etc. . ., and are then called **simple conjunctions**; sometimes they are formed of two or more words (*tandis que, bien que, parce que*), and are then designated as **conjunctive locutions.**

I.—Simple conjunctions.

452. The principal simple conjunctions are: **car** (=for), **comme** (=as), **donc** (=then), **et** (=and), **mais** (=but), **or** (=now, but), **ou** (=or), **que** (=that), **quand** (=though, even though), **ni** (=nor), **si** (=if), each of which is really only one word.

Car (from the Latin *quare*). It had preserved in the Old French its original meaning of *pourquoi* (=why). "Je ne sais ni *car* ni comment" =I know neither wherefore nor how, is an expression of the thirteenth century.—*Comme*, O.F. *cume*, from the Latin *quomodo*.—*Donc*, from the Latin *tunc*.—*Et* (Latin *et*).—*Ou* (O.F. *o*, from the Latin *aut*). On the change of *au* into *o*, see § 23.—*Quand* (quando).—*Que*, O.F. *qued*, from the Latin *quod*.—*Mais* (from the Latin *magis*) had formerly the sense of *plus*=more. This signification has persisted in the phrase *n'en pouvoir mais* (n'en pouvoir plus=to be exhausted). *Désormais*= henceforth.—*Ni* (Latin *nec*, O.F. *ne*). Molière has *ne plus, ne moins*. —*Or*, in Old French, meant now (*maintenant*), properly *à cette heure* (=at this hour), from the Latin *hora*=hour: *or*, dites moi, etc....= dites-moi *maintenant*=now, tell me.—*Si* (Latin *si*). Compound *si-non*. In the Old French the two particles were separable: "Je verrai *si*

lui-même *non*, au moins son frère"=I shall see at least his brother, if I do not see him himself.

453. To the above list we must join the conjunctions such **as plutôt** = rather; **puisque** = since; **néanmoins** = nevertheless; **cependant** = meanwhile; **aussi** = also; **encore** = yet; **ainsi** = thus; **lorsque** = when, which are really compounded of two distinct words, combined into one by modern orthography.

Ainsi (O.F. *ensi* and *insi*, from the Latin *in-sic*).—*Aussi* (O.F. *alsi*, from the Latin *aliud-sic*).—*Cependant*, from *ce* and *pendant*, literally *pendant cela:* "Nous nous amusons, et *ce pendant* la nuit vient"=we enjoy ourselves, and, in the meanwhile, night comes on.—*Encore* (O.F. *ancore*, at that hour, from the Latin *hanc horam*).—*Lorsque* (from *lors* and *que*). This locution is still separable: *lors* même *que*=even when, even though.

Néanmoins, O.F. *néantmoins*, from *néant* and *moins*.—*Néant* (Latin *ne*[*e*] *éntem*) means literally *rien* (=nothing), *non* (=not). La Fontaine has employed it in this sense: "J'ai maints chapitres vus, Qui pour *néant* se sont tenus"=I have seen many chapters which considered themselves as nothing. *Néant-moins* is the equivalent of *ne pas moins*: "Il est fort jeune et *néanmoins* sérieux"—that is to say, "il n'en est pas moins sérieux"=he is very young and none the less serious.—*Plutôt* (*plus* and *tôt*).—*Puisque* (*puis* and *que*).

II.—Conjunctive locutions.

454. The principal are: **au contraire**=on the contrary; **au moins**=at least; **tandis que**=whilst; **alors que**=whilst; **sans que**=without; **dès que**=as soon as; **avant que**=before that; **après que**=after that; etc...

See the origin of these locutions under the corresponding prepositions and adverbs.

CHAPTER XI.

OF THE INTERJECTION.

455. The interjection is a cry, an exclamation expressing the sudden impulses of the mind: **ah! oh! fi! hélas!**

456. The interjections are formed either with the help of nouns (*paix!* = silence! *courage!* = cheer up! *patience!* = have patience!), or of verbs (*soit!* = be it so! *allons!* = come on! *suffit!* = enough! that will do!). Sometimes they are mere exclamations (ah! oh! etc.)

If we leave aside locutions such as *paix! courage! soit!* etc., which are elliptical prepositions (for *faites* paix! *prenez* courage! *que cela* soit!), rather than interjections proper, we shall have little to say about French interjections, since the real ones are merely exclamations or cries common to the idioms of all nations (*oh! ah!*), etc.... Two alone, *hélas!* and *dame!* require a few words of explanation:

Hélas, written by our ancestors in two words: *hé! las!* is formed of the interjection *hé!* and the adjective *las* (lassus, *malheureux*=unhappy). The French of the thirteenth century said: "Cette mère est *lasse* de la mort de son fils," this mother is unhappy at the death of her son.—Hé! *las* que je suis!=Ah! unhappy that I am!—It is only in the fifteenth century that the two words coalesced, and that *hélas* became inseparable.—At the same time *las* lost all its primitive energy, and changed the meaning of *grief* for that of *weariness* or *fatigue*, just as it had happened for the words *gêne* (=inconvenience) and *ennui* (=weariness), which originally meant *torture* and *hatred*, respectively.

Dame! the Latin *Dómine-Deus* (hence *Dom'ne-Deus*, see § 51), became in French *Dame-Dieu;* we constantly find in Mediæval texts: "que *Dame-Dieu* nous aide!" (=the Lord God help us!). *Dame-Dieu* and, simply *dame* (that is to say, Lord God), was used as an interjection; and the exclamation *ah! dame*, which, nowadays, has lost all meaning, signifies *ah! Seigneur!* (=*ah! Lord!*)

BOOK III.

SYNTAX.

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SYNTAX.

457. We have just studied successively the ten kinds of words of which the French language is composed; it remains for us to show how these words can be brought together, in order to form phrases. That part of grammar which studies the manner of connecting words so as to make phrases is called *Syntax.*

Syntax comes from the Greek σύνταξις (arrangement, construction).

458. We cannot express a thought (or, as grammarians say, *enunciate a judgment*) without making what is called a **proposition.** When we say: *Dieu est tout-puissant* (= God is almighty), *L'enfant aime ses parents* (= the child loves his parents), each of these phrases forms a *proposition.*

459. The *proposition* may be **simple,** as in *Dieu aime les hommes* (= God loves men), or **compound,** as in *Dieu, qui est clément, aime les hommes* (= God, who is merciful, loves men). This latter proposition is called compound, because, to the principal proposition (*Dieu aime les hommes*), a secondary proposition is added (*qui est clément*).

460. Syntax, then, divides itself into two parts: the first

teaches us to bring together two or more words in order to make of them a *simple* proposition; the second to bring together two or more simple propositions, in order to make of them a *compound* proposition.

461. These two parts of syntax are called, the first, **Syntax of words**, the second, **Syntax of propositions.**

FIRST PART.

SYNTAX OF WORDS.

462. We have said that we cannot express a thought without making what is called a *proposition.*

Every proposition contains three terms: the *subject*, the *verb*, the *attribute.* When we say, for instance, *L'homme est bon* (=the man is good), we attribute to the being called *man* the quality of *good;* we affirm that *the man* possesses that quality. The word *good*, designating the quality which we **attribute** to the man, is for that reason called **attribute**; the word *est* (is), which serves to **affirm** that this quality of good *exists* in the man, is called **verb**; finally, *the man*, of whom we have affirmed that he possessed the quality pointed out by the attribute, is called **subject.**

Thus the *subject* of the proposition is that of which something is affirmed, the *verb* is the word which expresses this affirmation, and the *attribute* is the quality which we affirm to exist in the subject.

463. In every proposition, the verb and the attribute **agree** with the subject—that is to say, they take the number, the gender, and the person of the subject to which they refer. When we say *L'herbe est verte* (= the grass is green) *est* is the third person singular and *verte* (green) is the feminine of the same number, because the two words *est* and *verte* refer to the same object—*l'herbe* (the grass)—which is in the feminine gender and singular number. If we compare the proposition to a little band of soldiers, we can say that the subject is the commander.

and that the verb and the attribute recognise his authority and wear his uniform. We ought then to begin syntax with the study of the rules, according to which different words *agree* together, when we wish to reunite them in order to form a proposition.

464. When we say *L'herbe est verte* (= the grass is green) the word *grass* as yet only indicates a very vague idea; we know that *that which is green* is *the grass*, not *water* or *the earth* but we do not know whether it is this or that grass which is green,—if it is the grass of the garden, for instance, or that of the meadow. If, to particularize this general idea, we say, *L'herbe du jardin est verte* (= the grass of the garden is green), the word *garden*, which comes in to *complete*, to explain the word *grass* to which it refers, is called, for this reason, its *complement*. To express an idea by the help of words joined together in a proposition, we must know how to render that idea more or less clear by adding to the proposition one or more *complements*, which explain or determine it.

465. The syntax of words has, then, the double object of determining for each of the ten parts of speech all the rules which concern the **agreement** and the **complement**.

CHAPTER I.

SYNTAX OF THE SUBSTANTIVE.

I.—Agreement of the substantive.

466. When two substantives following each other point out the same person or the same thing, the second agrees with the first in gender and in number: Le *roi* chevalier (=the king-knight), La *reine* mère (the queen-mother), Les *soldats* laboureurs (= the ploughmen-soldiers), Clotilde *reine* illustre (= Clotilda, an illustrious queen).

467. When one of two substantives forms the subject, and the other the attribute, of the same proposition, the second always takes the gender and number of the first: Turenne est un *héros* (=Turenne is a hero), Jeanne d'Arc est une *héroïne* (=Joan of Arc is a heroine).

II.—Complement of the substantive.

468. When one substantive is used as a complement to another, this use is generally marked by the propositions **de** (of) or **à** (to): *un homme d'honneur* (=a man of honour), *la maison de Paul* (=Paul's house), *un oiseau de proie* (=a bird of prey),—*un fusil à aiguille* (=a needle-gun), *un chandelier à branches* (=a candlestick with branches), *un piano à queue* (=a grand piano).

In expressions like the above, which mark possession, *à* (to) signifies *avec* (with); (fusil *à* aiguille, piano *à* queue, are equivalent to *fusil* avec *aiguille*, *piano* avec *queue*). Besides possession, *à* and *de* serve to mark the relation between cause and effect, that of a part to the whole, etc....

The Romans marked the relation of possession by the genitive case: *liber* Petri, le livre *de* Pierre (Peter's book). We have seen in § 84 that the French, in reducing to one single case for each number the six cases of the Latin declension, were obliged to replace them by the prepositions *de* (of) or *à* (to) which in vulgar Latin were already used for that purpose; the Latin said, for instance, *caballus* de *Petro*, *do panem* ad *Petro*, for *le cheval* de *Pierre*, *je donne du pain* à *Pierre* (=Peter's horse, I give Peter some bread). Originally, however, the French had so strong a reminiscence of the Latin genitive case, that they marked the relation of possession by the simple apposition of two substantives, which apposition first took place in putting the name of the possessor before that of the object possessed (*li Deu inimi* instead of *les ennemis de Dieu* (=the enemies of God), in imitation of the Latin construction *Dei inimici*); some traces have remained of this inversion in *chiendent* (=dog-grass) and *chèvrefeuille* (=woodbine), which really signify *dent* de *chien* (=tooth of a dog), *feuille* de *chèvre* (=leaf of a goat). Later on, the Old French reversed the apposition, and, placing the name of the possessor after that of the object possessed, it said (still without the preposition) *l'épée le roi*, *la volonté Dieu*, *la maison Dieu* (=the king's sword, God's will, God's house), instead of *l'épée* du *roi*, *la volonté* de

Dieu, la maison de *Dieu* (=the sword of the king, the will of God, the house of God), and this apposition still exists in some expressions (la *fête-Dieu* (=Corpus Christi day), l'*hôtel-Dieu* (=Hotel-Dieu, hospital), instead of la *fête* de *Dieu*, l'*hôtel* de *Dieu*), and more especially in a host of geographical names (*Château-Thierry*, le *Val Richer*—that is to say, le *château* de *Thierry*, le *vallon* de *Richer*, etc...., the castle of Thierry, the valley of Richer, etc....). The Old French also frequently marked the relation of possession by the preposition *à* (to), saying *la maison* à *Pierre*, *le jardin* à *Gautier*, for *la maison* de *Pierre*, *le jardin* de *Gautier* (=the house of Peter, the garden of Gautier). This use of *à* (to) is still to be found in some locutions: *la barque* à *Caron*, etc., Charon's boat, etc.), and Molière has said l'*empoisonneur* au *diable*, instead of l'*empoisonneur* du *diable* (=the devil's poisoner).

469. We find also **en, sans, autour,** etc. (in, without, round, etc.), equally employed for this purpose: *un homme* sans *fortune* (= a man without fortune), *une épée* en *acier* (= a steel sword), *un voyage* autour *du monde* (= a voyage round the world).

470. The infinitives can also be used as complements to the substantive: *l'art d'*écrire (= the art of writing), *la façon de* marcher, etc. (= the way of walking, etc.).

471. We must carefully distinguish between the case where the noun and its complement are united by the article **du** (= of the), and that where they are united by the proposition **de** (= of): *un palais* de *roi* et *le palais* du *roi* (= a kingly palace, and the palace of the king) do not by any means express the same idea; the former phrase is general, and qualifies a *palace* of *royal* appearance: *cette maison est un vrai palais* de *roi* (that house is quite a royal palace); the latter phrase, on the contrary, is very special, and determines to whom the palace belongs: *cette maison est le palais* du *roi* (=that house is the king's palace).

472. When two nouns require after them the same preposition, they may have the same complement. Ex.: *son ardeur et son application* **au** *travail* (= his ardour and his application to

work), because *ardeur* and application both require the preposition **à**.

But we cannot say: *son dévouement et son obéissance pour son maître* (=his devotedness and his obedience to his master). Each word must take its appropriate complement. We shall say then: *son dévouement* **pour** *son maître et son obéissance* **envers** *lui*.

The use of a noun in the singular or the plural after a preposition depends entirely on the idea expressed. We must see whether the noun conveys or not an idea of plurality. Thus we shall say: *marchand de* **lait** (=a milkman)=qui vend *du lait*, and *marchand de* **pommes** (=an apple-merchant)=qui vend *des pommes; un fruit* **à noyau** (=a fruit with a stone in it—*i.e.*, apricots, peaches, cherries, etc.)=qui a *un noyau*, but *un fruit à* **pépins** (=a fruit with pips—*i.e.*, apples, pears, etc.)=qui a *des pépins*.

III.—Irregularity in the gender of nouns.

(See §§ 72—81.)

IV.—Irregularity in the number of nouns.

(See § 87, Additional Remarks.)

V.—Plural of proper nouns.

(See § 87, Additional Remarks, iii., C.)

VI.—Plural of nouns derived from foreign languages.

(See § 87, Additional Remarks, iii., B.)

VII.—Plural of compound nouns.

(See §§ 88—90.)

CHAPTER II.

SYNTAX OF THE ARTICLE.

I.—Agreement of the definite article.

473. We have seen in § 143 that the definite article agrees with the noun in gender and in number.

474. When the article refers to two substantives in the singular, it must be repeated before each of them: **le** *cousin et* **la** *nièce* (= the cousin and the niece), and not **les** *cousin et niece*, except in the locution **les** *père et mère* (= the father and mother), which use has consecrated.

475. When several adjectives united by *et* (and) refer to one and the same substantive, the article must be repeated, if the adjectives qualify different persons or things: **l'***histoire ancienne* **et la** *moderne* (ancient and modern history), not **l'***histoire ancienne* **et** *moderne;* but it would be correct to say **le** *brave* **et** *illustre Turenne* (=the brave and illustrious Turenne), because both adjectives qualify the same person.

476. The definite article is omitted: 1st. In proverbs or in sentences of a general kind—*Pauvreté n'est* **pas** *vice* (=poverty is no crime); 2nd. In enumerations, when we wish to give more rapidity to the phrase—*Rois, peuples, ennemis, tout tremblait devant lui* (=kings, people, enemies, all trembled before him).

477. The indefinite article is replaced by the preposition *de* (of) before nouns preceded by an adjective (for instance, **de** *bon pain*=good bread), but this article remains: 1st. When the adjective follows the noun: **du** pain excellent (=excellent bread); 2nd. When the noun and adjective form **a** compound noun: donnez-moi **des** petits-pois (=give me some green peas).

478. With nouns expressing things which are not susceptible of enumeration we must not use *un* or *une*, but *du* or *de la*. Thus, we cannot say: *donnez moi* **un** *vin*, **une** viande (=give me **a** wine, **a** meat), as we say: *donnez moi* **une** *cerise* or **une** *pomme* (=give me **a** cherry *or* **an** apple); we must say: *donnez moi* **du** *vin*, **de la** *viande* (=give me some wine, some meat).

479. Before the adverbs *plus*, *moins*, and *mieux*, the articles *le*, *la*, *les* are employed when a comparison is meant. Ex.: *la rose est* **la** *plus belle des fleurs* (=the rose is the finest of flowers), *les gazelles sont* **les** *plus agiles des quadrupèdes* (=gazelles are the nimblest of quadrupeds).

480. *Le*, however, remains invariable when we wish to express a quality carried to the highest degree, without any degree of comparison: *c'est en Asie que les montagnes sont* **le plus** *hautes* (=it is in Asia that the mountains are highest).

Le is further invariable before *plus*, *mieux*, *moins*, when these words are followed by another adverb, or employed by themselves: *c'est elle qui a répondu* **le plus** *adroitement* (=it is she who has answered the most skilfully), *c'est la rose que j'aime* **le** *mieux* (=it is the rose which I like the best). (For *mieux*, see § 433).

CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF THE ADJECTIVE.

I.—Agreement of the adjective.

481. The adjective agrees in gender and number with the noun to which it relates: *Dieu* est **clément** (=God is merciful), *le ciel* est **bleu** (=the sky is blue), *les hommes* sont **mortels** (=men are mortal).

482. An adjective which relates to two or more nouns in the

singular is put in the plural, thus ; *le chien et le cheval* sont **utiles** (=the dog and the horse are useful); it takes the masculine gender if the nouns are in the masculine, and the feminine if the nouns are in the feminine, thus : *la fouine et la belette* sont également **dangereuses** (=the polecat and the weasel are equally dangerous). If the nouns are of different genders, the adjective generally takes the masculine, thus : *le roi et la reine* sont **généreux** (=the king and the queen are generous).

483. After two nouns separated by the conjunction *ou*, the adjective agrees with the latter, provided it really qualifies that noun, and not the former. Ex. : *les colonnes se construisent en bois ou en pierre* **très-dure** (=the columns are made of wood or of very hard stone).

484. But if the adjective qualifies both substantives, it agrees with both. Ex. : *les Lapons se nourrissent de chair et de poisson* **crus** (=the Laplanders feed on raw flesh and fish).

485. When two or more substantives mark a gradation, and we wish to fix the attention particularly upon the last one, we give to the adjective the gender and the number of this last substantive: *Condé montra à Rocroy* un courage, un sang-froid, une audace **étonnante** (=Condé showed at Rocroy courage, coolness, and a wonderful audacity).

486. When an adjective is composed of two adjectives (or of an adjective and a participle), united by a hyphen, the two parts agree with the noun : *des poires aigres-douces* (=half-sweet, half-sour pears) ; the only exception is the word **mort** (dead), which always remains invariable in compound adjectives : *une brebis* mort-*née* (=a still-born lamb).

487. But if the former of the two adjectives is employed adverbially, it does not vary, being then a real adverb, as we have seen in § 430 : *l'herbe est très* **clair**-semée—that is to say, *très*-**clairement** *semée* (=the grass is very thinly sown), *ces per-*

sonnages étaient **court-vêtus** — that is to say, **courtement** *vêtus* (=those persons wore very short clothes). We shall say likewise: *une fille* **nouveau-***née* (=a new-born girl).

488. Adjectives employed adverbially (as we have seen in § 430) can never agree with the substantive, inasmuch as they are really adverbs—that is to say, words which from their nature are invariable: *elle chante* **juste**, *cette fleur sent* **bon**, etc. (=she sings in tune, this flower smells sweet, etc.).

489. We have seen in § 78 that the substantive *gens* (people) makes the adjectives feminine which precede it (*de* **sottes** *gens*), and masculine when they follow it (*des gens* **sots**=stupid people).

For the details of this exception and the explanation of its origin, see § 78.

490. Grand remains invariable in certain locutions. (See § 165.)

491. Substantives, employed as adjectives to express certain colours, are invariable; ex.: *Des étoffes* **noisette**, *des robes* **olive** (= nut-brown stuffs, olive-coloured dresses).

Two adjectives combined for the purpose of expressing a colour remain invariable: *des cheveux* **châtain clair**, *des yeux* **bleu foncé** (= light brown hair, dark blue eyes).

In expressions such as *châtain clair*, *bleu foncé*, the former word is an adjective used substantively, and thus it does not vary.

II.—Of the position of adjectives.

492. GENERAL RULE.—Adjectives are in French generally placed *after* the substantive to which they relate, as—

un homme *riche* (=*a* rich *man*)
une pensée *morale* (=*a* moral *thought*)
une chambre *obscure* (=*a* dark *room*)

une table *ronde* (=*a* round *table*)
un temps *chaud* (=*a* warm *weather*)
un thème *Français* (=*a* French *exercise*).

493. Although many adjectives may be placed either before or after the noun at pleasure, as *un homme habile*, or *un habile homme* (=a clever man), the best way to avoid mistakes in writing exercises is to put them *after* the substantive, except the following, which usually precede:

Beau (*fine*), bon (*good*), cher (*dear* [*denoting affection*]), digne (*worthy*), grand (*great*), jeune (*young*), joli (*pretty*), mauvais (*bad*), meilleur (*better*), moindre (*less*), petit (*little*), saint (*holy*), tel (*such*), tout (*all*), vieux (*old*), vilain (*ugly*).

N.B.—Past participles used as adjectives follow the nouns: un homme *instruit* (=a learned man), un livra reçu (=a book which has been *received*).

494. Several adjectives take a different signification according as they are placed before or after the noun. The following is a list of them:

une certaine nouvelle ([Lat. *quidam*] certain news)	*un mal certain* ([Lat. *certum*] a positive evil)
mon cher frère (my dear brother)	*un livre cher* (an expensive book)
différentes / *diverses* } *choses* (sundry things)	*des objets* { *différents* / *divers* } (different, various objects)
une fausse clef (a skeleton key)	*une clef fausse* (a wrong key [in music])
un honnête homme (a good man)	*un homme honnête* (a polite man)
un malhonnête homme (a dishonest man)	*un homme malhonnête* (a rude man)
un nouvel habit (a fresh coat)	*un habit nouveau* (a new-fashioned coat)
un pauvre poète (an indifferent poet)	*un poète pauvre* (a needy poet)
un plaisant conte (an absurd tale)	*un conte plaisant* (an amusing tale)
son propre habit (his own coat)	*un habit propre* (a clean coat)

son seul enfant (his only child)	*un enfant seul* (a child alone)
un vrai coquin (an arrant [notorious] rogue)	*une nouvelle vraie* (true intelligence)
un brave homme (an honest man)	*un homme brave* (a brave man)
un grand homme (a man of genius)	*un homme grand* (a tall man)
un petit homme (a little [short] man)	*un homme petit* (a mean man)
d'une commune voix (unanimously)	*une voix commune* (a common [vulgar] voice)
une grande dame (a lady of rank)	*une dame grande* (a tall lady)
une méchante épigramme (a poor epigram)	*une épigramme méchante* (a wicked epigram)
de méchants vers (poor verses)	*des vers méchants* (wicked verses)
la dernière année (the last year [of any period])	*l'année dernière* (last year).

495. The two adjectives—**nu** (naked) and **demi** (half)—placed before the noun, are invariable, and are united to the substantive by a hyphen: *nu*-pieds, *nu*-tête, *une demi*-livre, *une demi*-heure (= bare-footed, bare-headed, half-a-pound, half-an-hour); placed after the noun, they agree with it—the former in gender and number: *les pieds* nus, *la tête* nue; and the latter in gender *only*; *une livre et* demie, *deux heures et* demie (= two hours and a half).

This rule was not recognised in Old French, and even in the seventeenth century we find: *il est* nus *pieds, elle est* nues *jambes* (= he is bare-footed, she has bare legs). *Nue propriété* (= reversionary interest) is still accepted by the Academy.

REMARK.—When *demi* is used as a substantive, it is masculine when it means *a half* in arithmetic: deux **demis** font un entier (= two halves make a whole); but it is feminine when it applies to *hours:* cette pendule sonne les **demies** = this clock strikes the half-hours).

496. The adjective **feu** (late, deceased) is invariable—

placed before the article: *feu* la reine (= the late queen); but when placed after it, it agrees with the noun in gender and in number: *la* feue *reine*.

497. **Ci-joint, ci-inclus** remain invariable: 1° At the beginning of a sentence: **ci-joint** *la lettre de votre père* (= annexed is your father's letter), **ci-inclus** *les pièces du contrat* (= enclosed are the documents referring to the deed).—2° In the body of a sentence, when the following noun is used without article or determinative adjective: *vous trouverez* **ci-joint** *copie de sa lettre* (= you will find a copy of his letter annexed). In every other case the agreement takes place: *Les pièces* **ci-jointes** *sont précieuses* (= the annexed documents are valuable), *vous trouverez* **ci-jointe** *la copie du traité* (= you will find the copy of the treaty annexed).

498. **Franc**, in the expression *franc de port* (= carriage, *or* postage paid), is invariable when it precedes the substantive: *vous recevrez*, **franc de port**, *la lettre que je vous envoie* (= you will receive the letter I send to you, postage paid). Placed after the substantive, it agrees with it: *cette lettre est* **franche de port** (= this letter is prepaid).

III.—Complement of the adjective.

499. Two adjectives qualifying the same noun must each have the same preposition as a complement. Thus we can say: *ce fils* est **utile** et **cher** *à sa mère* (= that son is useful and dear to his mother), because *être utile* à *quelqu'un* (= to be useful to some one), *être cher* à *quelqu'un* (= to be dear to some one) are grammatically correct; but we could not say: *ce fils est* **utile** *et* **chéri de** *sa mère*, because *être utile* **de** *quelqu'un* is wrong; in this case we must lengthen the proposition, and say: *ce fils est utile à sa mère et il en est chéri* (= that son is useful to his mother and he is beloved by her).

CHAPTER IV.

SYNTAX OF NUMERAL, POSSESSIVE, AND INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES.

I.—Numeral adjectives.

A. Cardinal adjectives.

500. The names of cardinal numbers are invariable: trois *hommes*, quatre *femmes* (= three men, four women), except *un*, *vingt* and *cent* (= one, twenty, and one hundred).

501. **Un** (= one) makes **une** in the feminine: *deux coffrets et* une *boîte* (= two coffers and one box).

502. **Vingt** and **cent** do not vary as to gender, but in certain cases they do as to number, and take *s* in the plural:

503. *Vingt* and *cent*, when they are not preceded by any other number, remain invariable: **vingt** hommes, **cent** chevaux (= twenty men, a hundred horses).

504. But if *vingt* and *cent* are preceded by a multiple: **quatre-vingts** *hommes*, **deux cents** *soldats* (= eighty men, two hundred soldiers), they take an *s*, unless they are themselves followed by another number: *quatre-***vingt-trois** *deux* **cent trente** (= eighty-three, two hundred and thirty); in which case *vingt* and *cent* again become invariable.

505. **Mille** (= thousand), invariable in gender and number, changes its form when it expresses the date of a year, or the date marked on coins; it is then written *mil* (but only in this case): *l'an* **mil** *huit cent soixante-seize* (= the year eighteen hundred and seventy-six). Note, further, that this spelling only applies to the years *posterior to the Christian era: ce fut arriva chez*

les Hébreux l'an du monde **mille** *deux cent quarante* (= this happened to the Hebrews in the year of the world two thousand and forty).

We have seen in § 205 the origin of the word *mil*, which is not, as is commonly supposed, an abbreviation of *mille*.

B. Ordinal adjectives.

506. Ordinal adjectives agree in gender and in number with the noun which they determine: *les* **premières** *maisons; la* **seconde** *ville; la* **trentième** *année du règne de Louis XIV.* (= the first houses; the second town; the thirtieth year of the reign of Louis XIV.).

507. We have seen (§ 206) that the ordinal adjectives indicate order and rank: *le* dixième *siècle, la* vingtième *année* (= the tenth century, the twentieth year); but the cardinal numbers are employed exceptionally to point out the rank of a sovereign in a dynasty, and also the days of the month: *le* **deux** *avril, le* **trois** *juillet* (= the second of April, the third of July), not le **deuxième** *avril, le* **troisième** *juillet; Charles* **XII.** (= Charles the twelfth), not Charles le **douzième**; Napoléon **trois** (= Napoleon the third), not Napoléon le **troisième.** Nevertheless the adjective *premier* (first) is alone used according to the rule: *Napoléon* **premier,** *le* **premier** *juillet* (= Napoleon the first, the first of July), and has never been supplanted by *un.*

508. In cases such as *page* **quatre-vingt** (= page eighty), *l'an* **huit-cent** (= the year eight hundred), *vingt* and *cent* are invariable, because they are used for *quatre-vingtième* (= eightieth), *huit centième* (= eight hundredth).

II.—Possessive adjectives.

509. Possessive adjectives, in French, agree in gender and number with the *object possessed*, and not with the *possessor* as in English, as—

son âge (=his, her, *or* its age)
son mari (=her husband)
sa femme (=his wife)
son frère (=his *or* her brother)
sa sœur (=his *or* her sister).

510. The possessive adjectives are repeated in French before each substantive, and agree with it in gender and number, as—

mon frère et ma sœur (=my brother and sister).

511. When several adjectives refer to different persons or things represented by one and the same noun, the possessive adjective is always repeated before each: **notre** *bonne et* **notre** *mauvaise fortune* (=our good and our bad fortune).

512. The repetition does not take place when the adjectives, qualify the same person or thing: **nos** belles et fertiles plaines (=our fine and fertile plains).

513. The name of the object possessed (when it belongs to several persons) is put in the singular, if the object is possessed in common: *le père et la mère attendaient* **leur** *voiture* (=the father and the mother expected their carriage); it is put in the plural when there are as many objects possessed as there are possessors *les ambassadeurs attendaient* **leurs** *voitures* (=the ambassadors were waiting for their carriages).

514. When the object possessed belongs to a person (and not to an inanimate being) *son, sa, ses* are used: *J'aime Henri, mais je connais* **ses** *défauts* (=I love Henry, but I know his faults).—In all other cases **en** is generally used, followed by the definite article: *Si je vous parle de ces fruits, c'est que j'***en** *connais* **la** *saveur* (=if I speak to you of those fruits, it is because I know the flavour of them).

515. The possessive adjectives *mon, ton, son*, etc. (=my, thy, his, etc.), are replaced by the article when they refer to something inseparable from the person, and when the sense of the phrase clearly indicates the possessor: *il s'est cassé* **le** *bras* (and

not **son** *bras*)=he has broken his arm; but we must say *il a perdu* **sa** *fortune* (= he has lost his fortune).

516. In French *votre* is, out of politeness, often preceded by the words: *Monsieur*, *Madame*, *Mademoiselle* (= sir, madam, miss); plur., *Messieurs*, *Mesdames*, *Mesdemoiselles* (= gentlemen, ladies), which are not expressed in English, as—

monsieur votre père (=your father)
mademoiselle votre sœur (=your sister)
messieurs vos frères (=your brothers).

III.—Indefinite adjectives.

517. Indefinite adjectives do not call for any particular remark as far as the Syntax is concerned, except in the case of the words *tout*, *quelque*, *chaque*, and *même* (= all, every;—some;—each, every;—the same, even).

518. The adjective **tout** (all, every) does not present any difficulty when it is used as an adjective, and follows the ordinary rules bearing on that part of speech: **tout** *homme*, **toute** *femme*(=any man, any woman); *j'ai vu* **tous** *les hommes*(=I have seen all the men); *je ne puis vous accorder ceci, mais demandez-moi* **toute** *autre chose et vous l'obtiendrez* (that is to say, **toute** *chose* **autre** *que celle que vous me demandez* [=I cannot grant you this, but ask me for anything else, and you will obtain it—that is to say, anything else but what you have asked me for]).

In the same way, in **tout** Paris, **tout** Londres (= all Paris, all London), **tout** agrees with people understood: **tout** le peuple de Paris, etc. (= all *the people* of Paris, etc.).

519. We have seen in § 430 that adjectives can be used as adverbs (*parler* haut, *chanter* juste, *voir* clair [=to speak loud, to sing in tune, to see clearly]); in like manner *tout* (= all, every) can be employed adverbially, and it then means *tout à fait* (=altogether, quite): *je suis* **tout** *surpris* (je suis tout à fait surpris [= I am quite surprised]). In playing the part of an adverb *tout* becomes naturally invariable: *elle est* **tout** *heureuse du succès de*

son fils (=she is quite happy in the success of her son); *ces mères sont* **tout** *heureuses des succès de leurs fils* (that is to say, *tout-à-fait heureuses* [=those mothers are quite happy in the successes of their sons]). *Londres est* **tout** *autre chose que Paris* (that is to say, *une chose* tout à fait autre [=London is quite another thing from Paris]). Only before words commencing with a consonant (such as *surprise* [=surprise]) or an *h* aspirated (such as *honteuse* [=ashamed]), the word *tout* is made to agree (like a simple adjective) for the purpose of softening the pronunciation: *elle est* **toute** *surprise, elle est* **toute** *honteuse* (=she is quite surprised, she is quite ashamed).

In the same way, we can say: *Ces gens sont* **tout** *yeux,* **tout** *oreilles* (=these people are all eyes and ears). **Tout** means also *quelque, si* [*adverb*] (=however): *La valeur,* **tout** *héroïque qu'elle est,* ne *suffit pas à faire des héros* (=*valour,* however *heroic it may be, is not sufficient to make heroes*). See § 520.

The Old French language made *tout* agree with its substantive, and never used it adverbially (or, to speak more correctly, invariably). It was written thus in the seventeenth century: *Des choses* toutes *opposées* [=things *quite* opposite] (La Bruyère). *Je me suis livré à des tristesses* toutes *humaines* [=I have abandoned myself to sadness quite consistent with human nature] (Massillon). The present use was not definitively fixed upon till the second half of the eighteenth century.

520. Quelque, used as an adjective, follows the ordinary rules of agreement with the noun to which it refers: **quelques** *hommes* (=some men); **quelques** *ennemis que vous ayez, vous triompherez* (=whatever enemies you may have, you will conquer). But when it is used adverbially, *quelque* signifies: 1st, with substantives, *environ, à peu près* (=about, nearly); *j'ai rencontré* **quelque** *vingt personnes* (=I met about twenty people); *il vivait* **quelque** *cent ans après J. C.* (=he lived about one hundred years after J. C.);—2nd, joined to adjectives, it means the same as the adverb *si* (**quelque** *puissants que soient vos ennemis...,* that is to say, **si** *puissants que soient vos ennemis* (=however powerful your enemies may be). In these two last examples, *quelque,* being an adverb, remains invariable.

Respecting the origin of *quelque,* see § 220. *Quelque,* employed now adverbially in such expressions as *quelque vingt ans,* etc. (=some

twenty years), was formerly variable in French, and Corneille (*Clit.* ii., 2) says *quelques huit jours* (=about a week).

521. We must not confound **quelque** (used with its corresponding substantive) with another adjectival locution, **quel que**, which is never used except when separated from its substantive (and which is always followed by a verb in the subjunctive, to express doubt about the person or the thing in question): **quel** *que* **soit** *votre bonheur*, **quelles** *qu'aient été vos infortunes* (=whatever your happiness may be, whatever your misfortunes may have been).

Quelque, written in one word, must not, therefore, be mistaken for the expression *quel que* (formed from *quel*, *quelle*, and the conjunction *que*); this latter word is not at all, as some grammarians believe, the adjective *quelque* divided into two.

522. **Même** (=the same, even) varies when it is an adjective, and remains invariable when it is an adverb—that is to say, when it has the sense of *de plus*, *aussi*, *encore* (= besides, also, again). It is an adjective, for example, in: *les* **mêmes** *hommes*, *les dieux eux-***mêmes** *sont étonnés* (=the same men, the gods themselves are astonished). It is an adverb in: *le citoyen doit obéir aux lois*, **même** *injustes* (=the citizen ought to obey laws, even unjust ones).

Même is an adverb when placed after several substantives: *Les vieillards, les femmes, les enfants* **même** *furent égorgés* (= the old men, women, and *even* children were slaughtered).

On the origin of *même*, see § 220. In the seventeenth century *même* was made to agree sometimes, when used adverbially: thus Corneille (*Polyeucte*, iii., 2) speaks of *Des blasphèmes qu'ils ont vomis tous deux contre Jupiter* mêmes (=blasphemies which they have poured forth even against Jupiter).

523. **Chaque** (=each, every) being an *adjective*, must never be used except with its corresponding substantive: *Chaque* pays *a ses usages; ces villes ont* chacune *une citadelle* (=every country has its customs; each of these towns has a citadel). We must

not say, then: *ces fruits valent un franc* **chaque**, but *un franc* **chacun** (=these fruits are worth a franc each).

On *chaque* and *chacun*, see § 220.

CHAPTER V.

SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUNS.

I.—Personal pronouns.

524. The conjunctive personal pronouns are so called from their being immediately united with verbs. (See §§ 224 and following.)

Position of the pronouns.

525. Conjunctive pronouns precede the verb, as—

Je vous parle (=I speak to you)
Tu me remercies (=thou thankest me)
Il me prie (=he prays me)
Elle te sert (=she serves thee)
Nous le lui disons (=we tell it to him, *or* to her)
Vous me le dites (=you tell it to me)
Ils nous les donnent (=they give them to us)
Elles vous en parleront (=they will speak to you about it).

526. In interrogations the pronoun nominative comes after the verb; the accusative or dative precedes, as—

Ai-*je* des amis? (=have I friends?)
Suis-*je* heureux? (=am I happy?)
Parlez-*vous* allemand? (=do you speak German?)
Vient-*il*? (=is he coming?)
Le verriez-*vous*? (=would you see him?)
Lui avez-*vous* obéi? (=have you obeyed him?)
Me connaissez *vous*? (=do you know me?)
Leur a-t-*il* parlé? (=has he spoken to them?)

527. When the verb is in the imperative affirmative, the governed pronouns are put after it, in French as well as in English. In this case *me* and *te* are changed into *moi* and *toi* for the dative and accusative, as—

Donnez-*moi* (=give me)	Apportez-*lui* (=bring [to] him)
Mangez-*les* (=eat them)	Parlez-*leur* (=speak to them).

(See § 225.)

If *moi*, *toi* are followed by *en* or *y* they are changed into *m'*, *t'*: voici de belles pêches, donnez-*m'en* quelques-unes (=here are some fine peaches, give me some [of them]); il y a place pour toi à côté de mon frère, mets-*t'y* (=there is room for you by the side of my brother, place yourself [sit down] there).

528. But when the imperative is negative, the governed pronoun precedes the verb, as—

ne *me* donnez pas (=do not give me)
ne *lui* apportez pas (=do not bring him)
ne *les* mangez pas (=do not eat them)
ne *leur* parlez pas (=do not speak to them).

529. The dative and accusative are placed immediately before the verb in a simple tense, and before its auxiliary in a compound one, as—

tu *me* dis (=thou [you] tell me)
elle *m'*a répondu (=she has answered me)
je *les* ai vus (=I have seen them).

530. If the sentence is negative, *ne* is put directly after the subject, before the governed pronoun, as—

je *ne* vous donne pas (=I do not give you)
tu *ne* me connais pas (=you do not know me)
vous *ne* les avez pas vus (=you have not seen them).

531. When a verb, which is not in the imperative affirmative, governs two pronouns, they are both placed immediately before the verb, so that the dative comes first, and the accusative follows, except in the case of the two datives **lui** (=to him, to her)

and **leur** (=to them), which always follow the other governed pronoun, as—

je *te le* donne (=I give it to thee [you])
*vous l'*apporte-t-elle (=does she bring it [to] you)
je *le lui* donne (=I give it him *or* her)
je ne *le lui* donne pas (=I do not give it him *or* her).

532. Of two personal pronouns governed by the imperative affirmative, the dative always stands last—

donnez-*le*-moi (=give it me)
prêtez-*la*-nous (=lend it to us).

533. The disjunctive personal pronouns are employed, either by themselves, or with a preposition. They are as follows:—

1st person.

S. N. A.	*moi*	(I) (me)	Pl. N. A.	*nous*	(we) (us)
G.	*de moi*	(of *or* from me)	G.	*de nous*	(of *or* from us)
D.	*à moi*	(to me)	D.	*à nous*	(to us).

2nd person.

S. N. A.	*toi*	(thou)	Pl. N. A.	*vous*	(you)
G.	*de toi*	(of *or* from thee)	G.	*de vous*	(of *or* from you)
D.	*à toi*	(to thee)	D.	*à vous*	(to you).

3rd person.

Masculine.

S. N. A.	*lui*	(he) (him)	Pl. N. A.	*eux*	(they) (them)
G.	*de lui*	(of *or* from him)	G.	*d'eux*	(of *or* from them)
D.	*à lui*	(to him)	D.	*à eux*	(to them).

Feminine.

S. N. A.	*elle*	(she) (her)	Pl. N. A.	*elles*	(they) (them)
G.	*d'elle*	(of *or* from her)	G.	*d'elles*	(of *or* from them)
D.	*à elle*	(to her)	D.	*à elles*	(to them).

Sing. and Plur., Masc. and Fem.

N. & A.	*Soi*	(one's self, itself, etc.)
Gen.	*de soi*	(of *or* from one's self, etc.)
Dat.	*à soi*	(to one's self, to itself, etc.).

534. They are used likewise—1. (*a*) after *c'est* or *ce sont* (= it is) expressed or understood; (*b*) in comparisons after *que* (= than); (*c*) after *comme* (= as), *ou* (= or), and *ni* (= nor), as—

C'est *moi* (= *it is* I)
C'est *lui* (= *it is* he)
Ce sont *eux* (= *it is* they)
Qui parle? *Moi* (= *who speaks?* I)
Vous lisez mieux que *lui* (= *you read better than* he)
Faites comme *elles* (= *do as* they).
C'est *vous* ou *moi* (= *it is* you *or* I)
Ni *lui* ni *toi* (= *neither* he *nor* thou).

(2) For the sake of emphasis, as—

Moi, je suis Espagnol (= I *am a Spaniard*)
Lui, faire une chose pareille! (= he *do such a thing!*)

(3) After a preposition, as—

de *moi* (= *of* me)
de *toi* (= *of* thee)
à *lui* (= *to* him)
à *eux* (= *to* them), etc.

(4) When there is more than one subject to the verb, as—
Lui et *moi* nous partons aujourd'hui (= he *and* I *depart to-day*).

535. When the pronoun replaces two or more names of persons grammatically different, it is put in the first person, if there is one; if not, it is put in the second person; thus, *vous, lui et moi*, **nous** *sommes fort âgés; toi et lui*, **vous** *êtes malheureux* (= you, he, and I are very old; he and you are unhappy). (See § 225).

536. When the pronoun *le* represents a word which describes a state, such as *malade* (= ill), or a function, as *reine* (= queen), or a quality, as *mère* (= mother), it is invariable: *Madame, êtes-vous* **malade** *?—Je* **le** *suis.* (= Madam, are you ill?—I am.) *Êtes-vous* **mère** *?—Je* **le** *suis. Êtes-vous* **reine** *?—Je* **le** *suis.* (= Are you a mother? a queen?—I am.) But when *le* represents a word which, instead of describing either a *state* or a *function*, stands for the *person* in that state or exercising that function, or possessing that quality, it varies in gender and number:

Êtes-vous **la** *malade que l'on m'a recommandée ?—Je* **la** *suis. Êtes-vous* **la** reine que nous cherchons ?—*Je* **la** *suis. Êtes-vous* **les** *soldats qui ont battu hier l'ennemi ?—Oui, nous* **les** *sommes.* (= Are you the invalid who has been recommended to me ?—I am. Are you the queen for whom we are looking ?—I am. Are you the soldiers who yesterday beat the enemy ?—We are.)

We have seen (§ 225) why *le* is invariable in the first case and variable in the second.

537. **Nous, vous** (= we, you), used for *je, tu* (= I, thou) govern the verb in the plural, but the past participle or adjective referring to them remains in the singular : **Nous** sommes **sûr**, dit le roi, de votre fidélité (= we are assured of your loyalty, said the king) ; **vous** êtes **enclin** à la paresse (= you are prone to idleness).

538. When speaking of animals or things, the pronouns *en* and *y* are used instead of *de lui, d'elle, d'eux ; à lui, à elle, à eux*, etc. : *Cet arbre est grandi, on* **en** *ferait un mât* (= that tree has grown, one could make a mast of it) ; *cette chaise est cassée, j'***y** *ferai mettre un pied* (= this chair is broken, I shall have a leg put to it).

539. **Soi** (= one's self) is used instead of *lui* (=him), *elle* (=her)—1° after an indefinite pronoun (*on* = one, *chacun* = every one, *personne* = nobody, etc.) : **On** *ne doit jamais parler de* **soi** (= one should never speak of one's self) ; **chacun** *vit pour* **soi** (= every one lives for himself).

2° After an impersonal verb or an infinitive : **Il faut** *penser à* **soi** (= one must think of one's self). **Être** *toujours content de* **soi** *est une sottise* (= to be always satisfied with one's self is foolishness).

3° After a *singular* noun expressing *a thing : cette* **faute** *entraîne après* **soi** bien des regrets (= that fault entails [brings after it] many regrets). But if the noun is in the *plural*, **soi** cannot be used : **Ces fautes** *entraînent après* **elles** *bien des regrets* (= these faults entail [bring after them] many regrets).

REMARK.—**Soi** is even used with a determinate subject, in order to avoid ambiguity : *L'avare qui a un fils prodigue n'amasse*

ni pour **soi** *ni pour* **lui** (= the miser who has a prodigal son accumulates neither for himself nor for him).

II.—Possessive pronouns.

540. The possessive pronouns *le mien*, *le tien*, etc. (= mine, thine, etc.), only refer to a noun already expressed: *j'achète* **votre** *maison et je vends* **la mienne** (= I buy your house and I sell mine). It is no longer the custom to place the pronoun before the name of the object possessed; thus we say: **mon** *frère* (= my brother), not *le* **mien** *frère*; but we still say occasionally *un* **mien** *cousin*, *le* **tien** *propre*, *une* **sienne** *tante* (= a cousin of mine, mine own, an aunt of his [or hers]).

See the explanation of these expressions in § 228.

541. When used with the verb *to be*, the possessive pronouns *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs* are generally translated into French by the verb *être*, followed by *à moi*, *à toi*, *à lui*, *à elle*, *à nous*, *à vous*, *à eux*, or *à elles*: This hat *is mine* (= ce chapeau *est à moi*).

542. *My own*, *thy own*, etc., are sometimes translated by *à moi*: J'ai une maison *à moi* (= I have a house of my own); and sometimes by the possessive adjectives *mon*, *ma*, *mes*, etc., followed by the adjective *propre* (own): Je l'ai vu de *mes propres* yeux (= I have seen it with *my own* eyes).

543. When the personal pronouns *le mien*, *le sien*, etc., are used absolutely and *in the singular*, they express *property*: Je ne demande que *le mien* (= I only ask for *my own*). *Le mien* et *le tien* engendrent beaucoup de guerres et de procès (= *mine* and *thine* give rise to many wars and lawsuits).

544. When the personal pronouns, being employed in an absolute sense, and *in the plural*, express the members of a *family*, *tribe*, *sect*, etc., or *relations* and *friends*, they become real nouns—*i.e.*, they do not refer to a noun already expressed: On n'est jamais trahi que par *les siens* (*Académie*) (= one is never betrayed, except by one's own people.) Il est plein d'égards pour moi et pour *les miens* (= he is full of attentions for me and my family).

III.—Demonstrative pronouns.

545. *Ce* (=it, that) before the verb *être* (=to be) is used for the *person* or the *thing* we wish to designate or point out, as—

ce n'est pas moi (=it *is not* I)
ce n'est pas vrai (=it [that] *is not true*).

546. *Ce* is much used with a relative pronoun, as—

ce qui nous plaît (=that which *pleases us*)
ce dont je me plains (=that of which *I complain*)
ce à quoi je m'applique (=what *I apply myself to*)
ce que je vois (=what I see).

(See also Book II., Chap. IV., Section iii., § 282.)

547. **Celui, celle, ceux, celles** cannot be determined by a simple adjective or participle; thus instead of saying: *J'ai lu votre lettre et* **celle** *destinée à mon frère*, the relative pronoun must be added to the demonstrative: *J'ai lu votre lettre et* **celle qui** *est destinée à mon frère* (=I have read your letter, and the one which is intended for my brother).

548. In **celui-ci, celui-là, ceux-ci, ceux-là, ci** points out persons or objects *close to us*, and **là** those which are *far from us*: *Cicéron et Démosthènes furent deux grands orateurs;* **celui-ci** était Grec, **celui-là** *était Romain* (=Cicero and Demosthenes were two great orators; the **latter** was Greek, the **former** Roman. See Book II., § 234.

549. To what we have already said (§ 234), we may add that **ceci** applies to what comes *after it*: *N'oubliez pas* **ceci**: *aide-toi, le ciel t'aidera* (=do not forget **this**: help thyself, and Heaven will help thee!)—whilst **cela** applies to what comes *before it*: *L'orgueil est un grand défaut, retenez-bien* **cela** (=pride is a great defect, remember **that** well).

IV.—Relative and interrogative pronouns.

550. Qui, preceded by a preposition, applies to *persons* or *things personified*: *L'enfant* **à qui** (not **auquel**) *tout le monde cède* est le *plus malheureux* (=the child to whom everybody yields, is the most unhappy). *O rochers escarpés! c'est à vous que je me plains, car je n'ai que vous* **à qui** *je puisse me plaindre* (=O steep rocks! it is to you that I complain, for I have only you to complain to).

551. Lequel, laquelle, etc., preceded by a preposition, apply to *animals* and *things*: *Les sciences* **auxquelles** (not **à qui**) *je m'applique* (=the sciences to which I apply myself). *Les Lapons ont un chat noir* **auquel** (not **à qui**) *ils confient tous leurs secrets* (=the Laplanders have a black cat to which they entrust all their secrets).

552. Qui can be used, *without an antecedent*, either as *subject* or as *complement*. In that case, it applies to persons *only*, and is always *masculine*: **qui** *sert bien son pays n'a pas besoin d'aïeux* (=he who serves his country well has no need of ancestors). **À qui** *venge son père il n'est rien d'impossible* (=there is nothing impossible for the one who avenges his father). *Choisis* **qui** *tu voudras* (=choose whom you like).

553. Dont is used for both genders and numbers, and may apply to all nouns, as—

le commis *dont* vous parlez (=*the clerk* of whom *you speak*)
la chose *dont* vous parlez (=*the thing* of which *you speak*)
la nature *dont* nous ignorons les secrets (=*Nature*, whose secrets are unknown to us).

554. When **dont** denotes the *origin*, *lineage*, *descent*, it applies to persons *only*: *La famille illustre* **dont** *il descend* (=the illustrious family from which he descends). With the nouns of *things*, **d'où** is employed: *Le pays* **d'où** je viens (=the country from which I come).

D'où is used also, instead of *dont*, to indicate a conclusion: *C'est un fait* **d'où** *je conclus* (=it is a fact from which I conclude).

555. Great care must be taken to place the relative pronoun in such a way that there can be no doubt as to what word is its real antecedent; thus: *Il y a plusieurs pages dans ces manuscrits* **qui** *sont illisibles* is an incorrect sentence, because the relative pronoun **qui** seems to refer to *manuscrits*. The correct way is: *Il y a dans ces manuscrits plusieurs pages* **qui** *sont illisibles* (=there are in these manuscrits several pages which are illegible).

556. Où always refers to inanimate objects, as—

Le siècle **où** (*or* dans lequel) nous vivons (=*the age* in which *we live*)

Les moyens par **où** (*or* par lesquels) vous réussirez (=*the means by* which *you will succeed*).

557. Relative pronouns must always be expressed in French, as—

the book you see (=*le livre* que *vous voyez*)
the lesson he learns (=*la leçon* qu'*il apprend*).

(See also Book II., chap iv., § 4.)

558. The *relative* pronouns are also used as *interrogative* pronouns: **Qui** êtes-vous? (= who are you?)—**que** *demandez-vous?* (= what do you ask for?)—*à* **quoi** *êtes-vous bon?* (= what are you good for?)—*Voici deux accusés,* **lequel** *est coupable?* (=here are two accused persons, which is the guilty one?). See § 239, and Remarks.

559. Quoi, as a relative pronoun, is used with a preposition, and is applied to things *only*, as—

La chose **à quoi** (*or* à laquelle) l'on pense le plus, est souvent celle dont on parle le moins (=*the thing* about which *we think the most, is often that of which we speak the least*).

560. As an interrogative pronoun also, **quoi** is frequently used with a preposition, and applies to things only, as—

De quoi l'accusez-vous ? (=of what *do you accuse him ?*)

561. **Quoi** is likewise used in exclamations, as—

Quoi de plus beau que la vertu ! (=What *is more beautiful than virtue !*)

562. In an interrogation formed with a verb which governs an accusative case, we use **que**, and not *quoi*, as—

que dites-vous ? (=what *do you say ?*)
que veut-il ? (=what *does he want ?*)

On the contrary, in an interrogation formed with a verb which governs an *oblique case*, we use **quoi**, and not *que*, according to the rule mentioned above (§ 559), as—

De quoi parle-t-il ? (=of what *is he speaking ?*)

V.—Indefinite pronouns.

563. When the indefinite pronoun **on** stands for a woman, the corresponding adjective is put in the feminine: Ex.: *à votre âge, ma fille,* **on** *est bien* **curieuse** (=at your age, my daughter, one is very inquisitive).

L'on is frequently used, for the sake of euphony, instead of *on*, after the conjunctions *et* (=and), *si* (=if), and the adverb *où* (=where). Ex.: **si l'on** *savait tout* (=if one knew all), *parlez,* **et l'on** *écoutera* (=speak, and we shall listen), *sachez* **où l'on** *va* (=know where we are going). Before the pronoun *le, la, les,* however, it is better to say *on*. Ex.: *qu'il parle et* **on** *l'écoutera* (=let him speak, and we shall listen to him), *si* **on le** *savait* (=if one knew it), *sachez où* **on la** *conduit* (=know where she is led), and not: *et l'on l'écoutera, si l'on le savait, où l'on la conduit.* (See § 241.)

564. The pronoun *chacun* takes *son, sa, ses* after it:

1° When it is the subject of the verb. Ex.: **chacun** doit parler à *son* tour (=each one must speak in his turn). 2° When it

is placed after the complement of the verb, or when there is no complement. Ex.: remettez ces livres-là **chacun** à *sa* place (=put back these books, each in its place); les animaux sont vêtus **chacun** selon *ses* besoins (=the animals are clothed, each according to its wants).

565. **Chacun** takes *leur, leurs* when it is placed before the direct complement. *Les abeilles bâtissent* **chacune** *leur cellule* (=the bees construct each its cell); *les langues ont* **chacune** *leurs bizarreries* (=each language has its oddities); *les juges ont donné* **chacun** *leur opinion* (=each judge has given his opinion).

566. The locution **l'un l'autre** expresses reciprocity, and takes both genders and both numbers; thus: *ils s'aimaient* **les uns les autres** (=they loved each other); *elles se nuisent* **les unes aux autres** (=they injure each other).

The locution **l'un et l'autre** does not express reciprocity, but merely the idea of two or more persons, two or more things; placed before a noun it is an adjective, and agrees with the noun: *j'ai parcouru* **l'une et l'autre** *régions* (=I have gone over both regions).

CHAPTER VI.

SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

I.—Agreement of the verb with one single subject.

567. Every verb agrees with its subject in number and person: *les hommes* **sont** *mortels, les enfants* **sont** *ignorants, le courage* **est** *une vertu* (=men are mortal, children are ignorant, courage is a virtue).

568. When the subject is a collective noun—that is to say, a noun which marks an assemblage, a collection of objects of

the same kind (*une* foule *d'enfants, une* multitude *d'oiseaux, une* nuée *de sauterelles* [=a crowd of children, a multitude of birds, a swarm of locusts]), the verb is put in the singular, if the collective noun is taken as the subject; for example: *nuée* (swarm), in *une* **nuée** *de sauterelles* **obscurcit** *l'air* (=a swarm of locusts obscured the air).

On the contrary, it is put in the plural, if the *complement* of the collective noun is taken as the subject; for example, *barbares* in *une nuée de* **barbares** désolèrent *le pays* (=a swarm of barbarians desolated the country).

Use will teach when to put the plural and when the singular. The invariable rules which grammarians pretend to establish on this point are more than doubtful.

569. After *la plupart, le plus grand nombre, une foule de, une infinité de*, etc. (=most part, the greatest number, a crowd of, a multitude of, etc.), the verb always agrees with the complement of these collective locutions, either expressed or understood. Ex.: *la plupart des* **gens** *ne* **font** *réflexion sur rien* (=most people think of nothing); *la plupart* **écrivent** *ce nom de cette manière* (=most people write this name thus).

In Latin, also: *magna* **pars** *vulnerati aut occisi* **sunt** (*une* grande partie *furent* tués ou blessés=a great *part were* killed or wounded).

In English: the greater **part were** not to be depended upon.

570. After the adverbs of quantity, *beaucoup, peu, moins, assez, trop*, etc. (=much, little, less, enough, too much, etc.), followed by a plural, the verb never agrees with the adverb, but always with the noun: *beaucoup de* **personnes ignorent** *la gravité de cette affaire* (=a number of people are ignorant of the gravity of that affair); *peu de* **gens supportent** *la contradiction* (=few people bear contradiction).

571. *Plus d'un* requires the verb in the singular, although it calls forth an idea of plurality. Ex.: **plus d'un** *brave* **mord** *la poussière* (=more than one brave man bites the dust).

572. The verb *être* (= to be), preceded by *ce* (*c'est, c'était*, etc.), remains in the singular—

(*a*) When it is followed by one or more nouns, the first of which is singular: **c'est** *la pluie et le brouillard qui* **attristent** *l'Angleterre* (=it is the rain and the fog which make England gloomy); *ce sera le même théâtre et les mêmes décorations* (=it will be the same theatre and the same scenery).

(*b*) If the pronoun *ce* recalls the idea of a singular substantive expressed before: *l'occasion de la pauvreté, c'est de grandes richesses* (=the occasion for poverty is great wealth).

(*c*) When *être* is followed by a pronoun of the first or second person: *c'est nous qui sommes les vrais coupables* (=it is we who are the real culprits); *c'est vous qui auriez dû le faire* (= it is you who should have done it).

(*d*) When the noun coming after *être* is preceded by *de: c'est de vos parents que nous parlons* (=it is of your relations we speak).

But the verb *être* is put in the plural—

(*a*) When the first noun is in the plural: *ce sont les mêmes décorations, le même théâtre* (= it is the same scenery, the same theatre); *ce sont les arbres, le chemin, la maison que j'ai vus autrefois* (=it is the trees, the road, the house, I saw formerly); *ce sont les rois qui sont les chefs des peuples* (= it is the kings who are the chiefs of the peoples).

(*b*) When the pronoun *ce* recalls the idea of a plural noun expressed before: *il y a dix espèces de mots: ce sont l'article, le nom*, etc. (= there are ten kinds of words: they are the article, the noun, etc.).

(*c*) When *être* is followed by pronouns of the third person plural: *ce sont eux qui m'ont accusé* (= it is they who have accused me).

However, the verb *être*, although followed by a pronoun of the third person plural, is put in the singular: (*a*) in order to avoid expressions disagreeable to the ear, such as *sont-ce, seront-ce, furent-ce*. Thus, we must say: **sera-ce** *vos amis qui*

tireront d'affaire? (= will it be your friends who will get you out of difficulty?).—(*b*) In the locution *si ce n'est* (= unless it be, if it is *or* was not): **si ce n'est** *eux quels hommes eussent osé l'entreprendre?* (= what men, besides them, would have dared to undertake it?).

573. Impersonal verbs (or verbs employed as such) remain invariable, even when they are followed by a plural noun; **il tomba** *des milliers de projectiles sur le champ de bataille;* **il vint** *plusieurs personnes* (= thousands of projectiles fell on the battle-field; several persons came).

See § 315 for the particular nature of the word *il*. Impersonal verbs may be used figuratively in the third person plural. Ex.: *les traits* **pleuvent**, *les canons* **tonnent** (=darts are showered, the cannons roar).

II.—Agreement of the verb with several subjects.

574. A verb which has two or more subjects in the same person of the singular is put in the same person of the plural (*le chien et le chat* **recherchent** *le voisinage de l'homme* = the dog and the cat seek the vicinity of men); but if the subjects are of different persons, the verb follows the same rule as the pronoun (see § 535)—that is to say, it is put in the first person plural if there is one (*vous, lui, et moi nous* **sommes** *heureux* [=you, he, and I are happy]), and if there is not a first person, it takes the second (*vous et lui, vous* **êtes** *coupables* [=you and he are guilty]).

575. The verb is put in the singular after several subjects: 1° When the subjects form either an enumeration or a kind of climax (*un regard, une parole, un serrement de main* **suffit** *pour relever le courage du malheureux*=a look, a word, a grasp of the hand, is enough to raise the courage of the unhappy man).

2° When the enumeration is summed up by a word, such as *chacun, tout, rien,* etc. Ex.: *un souffle, une ombre, un rien,* **tout** *lui* **donnait** *la fièvre* (=a breath, a shadow, a trifle; everything gave him the fever).

576. When the subjects are connected together by *comme* (= as), *ainsi que* (= as well as), *de même que* (= as well as), *autant que* (= as much as), *plus que* (= more than), *moins que* (= less than), *aussi bien que* (= as well as), the verb agrees with the first *only*. Ex. : *la vérité*, **comme** *la lumière, est inaltérable* (= truth, as well as light, is unalterable). *L'or* **autant que** *les honneurs* séduit *l'homme* (= gold seduces man as much as honours). In this last example, the verb of the secondary proposition is understood: *L'or* **séduit** *l'homme autant que les honneurs le séduisent.*

577. After *l'un et l'autre* (=both) the verb takes the plural: **l'un et l'autre** *sont morts*=both are dead; **l'un et l'autre** *guerrier sont de haute taille*(=both warriors are of tall stature); but *l'un ou l'autre, ni l'un ni l'autre,* one or the other, neither one nor the other) must have the verb in the singular: **l'un ou l'autre** *a raison, mais lequel des deux?* **ni l'un ni l'autre** *ne remportera la victoire* (= either one or the other is right, but which of the two? neither one nor the other will gain the victory).

578. The conjunctions *ou* and *ni* (=or *and* nor) also lead to some violations of the rules on the agreement of verbs. **Ni** and **ou** sometimes take the verb in the plural (**ni** *l'or* **ni** *la grandeur ne nous* **rendent** *heureux ; le courage* **ou** *le bonheur* **ont** *pu faire des héros*=neither gold nor greatness make us happy; courage or happiness have been able to make heroes),—and sometimes they take the verb in the singular (**ni** *Jean* **ni** *Pierre n'***a** *voulu travailler ; la peur,* **ou** *la misère lui* **a** *fait commettre une lâcheté,* =neither John nor Peter would work; fear or misery made him commit a cowardly act). Habit will teach how to distinguish between these shades of difference. As a general rule, when *l'un et l'autre, ni l'un ni l'autre* are distributive, the verb is in the singular; when they are collective, the verb is put in the plural.

579. When the verb has for its subject the pronoun *qui* (= who), it agrees in number and person with that pronoun which agrees itself with its antecedent: *c'est* **moi qui** *vous le*

dis, qui **suis** *votre tuteur* (= it is I who tell you this, I who am your guardian).

III.—Complement of the verb.

580. Two or more verbs can have a common complement only when these verbs do not require complements of a different nature: *L'enfant doit* **chérir** *et* **respecter** *ses parents* (= the child ought to love and respect his parents); in this phrase *parents* may serve as a complement to both verbs *chérir* and *respecter*, because we say *chérir quelqu'un*, *respecter quelqu'un* (=to love a person, to respect a person); but with a verb like *obéir* (= to obey), for instance, we could not use *parents* as a common complement; we could not say, for example: *l'enfant doit* **obéir** *et* **respecter** *ses parents* (=the child ought to obey and respect his parents); it is then necessary to express both complements, saying: *l'enfant doit respecter ses parents et* **leur** *obéir*.

581. When a verb has two or more complements, these complements ought to be of the same nature: we might say correctly, *il* **aime** *à chanter et* **à** *dessiner* (=he likes to sing and to draw), or *il aime* **le** *chant et* **le** *dessin* (=he likes singing and drawing), but we cannot say *il aime* **le** *chant et* **à** *dessiner* (= he likes singing, and to draw).

582. A verb cannot have two indirect complements, when the latter is a mere repetition of the former; thus, we must not say: *c'est* **à vous à qui** *je parle, c'est* **de vous dont** *il s'agit*, but *c'est à vous* **que** *je parle* (=it is to you I am speaking), *c'est vous* **dont** *il s'agit* (=it is you who are in question); or *c'est vous* **à qui** *je parle, c'est de vous* **qu'***il s'agit*.

The same remark applies to the adverb *où*; we must not say: *c'est ici* **où** *il demeure, c'est là* **où** *je vais*, but *c'est ici* **qu'***il demeure* (=it is here that he lives), *c'est* **là** *que je vais* (=it is there that I am going).

IV.—Use of the auxiliary verbs.

583. We have seen (§ 306) that twelve neuter verbs are conjugated with the auxiliary *être*: others, such as *courir* (=to

run), *dormir* (=to sleep), *languir* (=to languish), *marcher* (=to walk), *paraître* (=to appear), *périr* (=to perish), *succomber* (=to succumb), *vivre* (=to live), *survivre* (=to outlive), *triompher* (=to triumph), etc., only take the auxiliary *avoir*.

584. Finally others, such as *descendre* (=to descend), *passer* (=to pass), *cesser* (=to cease), *accourir* (=to run forward), *demeurer* (=to remain), *disparaître* (=to disappear), *apparaître* (=to appear), etc., take sometimes *avoir*, and sometimes *être*, according as we wish to express an *action* or a *state*. Ex.: *Il a passé en Australie au mois de mai* (=he went to Australia in the month of May)—that is to say, c'est au mois de Mai qu'il *a fait* l'action d'aller en Australie; but if we say: *il est passé en Australie depuis vingt ans* (=he has been in Australia for the last twenty years), we mean that he has now the *state* of being an Australian.

Avoir expresses, then, here, the action at the moment when it has taken place, and *être* the result of an action performed.

585. When these verbs can be used in an active sense they naturally take the verb *avoir*. *Il a monté l'escalier* (=he has gone up stairs); *nous avons descendu nos livres* (=we have taken down our books); *il a passé la rivière* (=he has crossed the river).

586. A few neuter verbs change their auxiliary according to the difference of meaning; thus *convenir* used with the meaning of *plaire* (=to please) takes *avoir*: *cet homme ne m'a pas convenu* (=that man has not pleased me); in the sense of to make an agreement it takes *être*: *nous sommes convenus d'agir ainsi* (=we have agreed to act thus).

The verbs *demeurer* (=to remain), *expirer* (=to expire), *rester* (=to stay), the sense of which is susceptible of variation, follow the same rule.

☞ For the use of the moods and tenses see the Syntax of propositions.

CHAPTER VII.

SYNTAX OF THE PARTICIPLES.

I.—Agreement of the present participle.

587. The present participle is always invariable. *Cette personne* **obligeant** *tous les malheureux est vraiment charitable;—l'orage, nous* **effrayant** *tous, redoubla* (=that person being kind to all the unfortunate people is really charitable;—the storm, frightening us all, redoubled in violence).

588. Taken as an adjective, the present participle is called a verbal adjective, and, like all other adjectives, follows the rules of agreement. The verbal adjective expresses a state (*l'obscurité est* **effrayante**=the darkness is alarming), while the participle expresses an action (*l'orage, en* **effrayant** *les animaux, dispersa tout le troupeau*=the storm, in frightening the animals, dispersed the whole flock).

The French present participles come from the Latin ones, which were used by the Romans as mere adjectives. Accordingly the present participles were always variable until the end of the sixteenth century; it was only in 1660 that Arnauld and Lancelot taught in their *Grammaire de Port-Royal* that among the different forms in *ant* a verbal *declinable* adjective ought to be distinguished from an *indeclinable* present participle. This erroneous principle (which Vaugelas had partly admitted since 1647) was recognised by the *Académie* in its sitting of June 3rd, 1679, and has obtained legal force since that time.

589. The verbal adjective, like other qualificative adjectives, is variable: *la chaleur est* **écrasante**; *les hurlements des loups sont* **effrayants** (= the heat is overpowering; the howlings of the wolves are alarming).

590. We have seen (§ 128) that the French language makes up fresh nouns with the help of the present participle: from

croyant, tranchant, débitant the present participles of *croire* (=to believe), *trancher* (= to cut), *débiter* (=to retail), it derives *un croyant* (= a believer), *un tranchant* (=the edge of a knife), *un débitant* (=a retailer); all these words follow naturally in the plural the rule which governs other substantives: *des croyants, des tranchants, des débitants.*

We must not confound the present participles, such as *négligeant* (=neglecting), *adhérant* (=adhering), *différant* (=differing), *extravaguant* (=saying or doing odd things), with the adjectives *négligent* (=negligent), *adhérent* (=adherent), *différent* (=different), *extravagant* (=extravagant). The former are regularly derived, through the French, from the verbs *négliger, adhérer, différer, extravaguer.* The latter are real adjectives taken directly from the Latin. These adjectives cannot therefore, in any case, be called the verbal adjectives of *négliger, adhérer*, etc.

II.—Agreement of the past participle.

1. General principles.

591. When the past participle is joined to the substantive without the help of a verb (as in *le mérite* **récompensé**, *la vérité* **aimée**, *le bonheur* **passé**=merit recompensed, beloved truth, past happiness) it is treated as an adjective—that is to say, it always agrees with the noun in gender and number (*les mérites* **récompensés**, *les bonheurs* **passés**, etc....=merits rewarded, happiness past).

592. When the past participle is preceded by the verb *être* (=to be), it always agrees with the subject in gender and number: **il** *est venu*, **elle** *est venue*, **ils** *sont venus*, **elles** *sont venues* (=he is come, she is come, they are come).

593. When the past participle is preceded by the verb *avoir* (=to have), and is not accompanied by any complement, it is always invariable: **il** *a chanté*, **elle** *a chanté*, **ils** *ont chanté*, **elles** *ont chanté* (=he has sung, she has sung, they have sung).

2. The past participle used with the auxiliary ÊTRE (= *to be*).

594. We have said that the past participle joined to the auxiliary *être* (=to be) always agrees with the subject: **la** *ville est ouverte*, **le** *port est fermé*, **ces** *fleurs sont épanouies* (=the town is open, the port is shut, these flowers are full-blown).

595. Consequently, passive verbs, being all conjugated with the auxiliary *être* (*le roi est aimé*=the king is loved), always have their past participle agreeing with the subject; **le** *roi est aimé*, **la** *reine est aimée*, **les** *princes sont aimés* (=the king is loved, the queen is loved, the princes are loved).

596. A few neuter verbs are conjugated with *être* (see § 306) and follow the same rule, such as *aller*, *venir*, *partir*, *arriver* (=to go, to come, to set out, to arrive): conformably with the rule given in § 575, their past participle always agrees with the subject: **il** *est venu*, **elle** *est venue*, **ils** *sont venus*, **elles** *sont venues* (=he, she, they are come).

597. In the case of impersonal verbs conjugated with *être* (**il** *est survenu un orage*; **il** *est arrivé des malheurs*=a storm came on, misfortunes came to pass), the participle agrees with the subject *il* (§ 594), and this being always invariable, it follows that the past participle never changes in verbs of this kind.

Il is here invariable, because it represents, in this case, not the masculine pronoun *ille* (celui-là), but the Latin neuter *illud* (cela), therefore, in the locutions *il fait* chaud, *il neige* (=it is warm, it snows), *il* is naturally invariable, and also the corresponding past participle. We have already met with another vestige of the Latin neuter in French in § 225.

598. We have seen (§ 447) that the French language creates new prepositions with the help of certain past participles, such as *excepté* (=except), *attendu* (=considering), *passé* (=past), etc. for instance, *excepté sa mère* (=except his mother), *attendu l'heure* (=considering the hour), *passé l'époque* (=the epoch being past), etc. In these cases the words *excepté*, *attendu*, etc., are always

placed *before* the noun; but the same words are participles and agree when they are put *after* the noun: *sa mère exceptée, l'heure attendue, l'époque passée.*

3. The past participle used with the auxiliary AVOIR (*to have*).

599. While the past participle with *être* depends upon the subject and varies with it, the past participle united to *avoir* is always independent of the subject (**j'***ai vu le roi,* **ils** *ont vu le roi*=I have seen the king, they have seen the king), and agrees only with the complement (**le** *roi que j'ai* **vu, les** *rois que j'ai* **vus**=the king whom I have seen, the kings whom I have seen).

600. The past participle with *avoir* varies when it is preceded by its direct complement, and it then agrees with that complement (**les** *chevaux que j'ai* **vus; les** *fleurs que j'ai coupées* =the horses that I have seen, the flowers that I have cut), but it always remains invariable when the complement which precedes it is indirect (**de** *tous ces malheurs j'ai maintes fois* **gémi**=I have oftentimes sighed over all these misfortunes), or when the direct complement follows the participle instead of preceding it (*j'ai* **vu la** *rose; j'ai* **vu des** *roses*=I have seen the rose; I have seen some roses).

In the Old French language the participle with *avoir* (=to have) varied according to the caprice of the writer, even when the complement followed: *il a achetée une ferme* or *il a acheté une ferme* (=he has bought a farm); in the first case *achetée* agrees with *ferme,* in the second *acheté* agrees with a complement understood, *cela:* il a acheté *cela, une ferme*); at the same time people preferred saying *il a une* ferme *achetée.*

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, non-agreement (when the complement follows) first made its appearance: some grammarians (Palsgrave in 1530; Ramus, the Estienne) already laid down on this point rules which the seventeenth century finally adopted, with some modifications. But we find still at that time a few traces of the old agreement of the participle: *il m'a, droit dans ma chambre, une boîte* jetée (=he has thrown to me a box right into my room), says Molière in *l'École des maris,* and Corneille, in *Horace* (V., 3): *le*

seul amour de Rome a sa main animée (=the love of Rome alone has urged his hand).

601. Neuter verbs, never having a direct complement (*nuire à quelqu'un, gémir de quelque chose*=to be injurious to some one, to grieve over something), the past participle of these verbs, conjugated with *avoir*, is always invariable: *Cette mauvaise action nous a* **nui**; *les mères ont* **gémi** *de tous ces malheurs* (=that bad action has proved injurious to us; the mothers have grieved over all those misfortunes).

602. We have seen that a few verbs are employed sometimes as active, sometimes as neuter verbs. In the former case they follow the rule of the past participle conjugated with *avoir*. Thus we say: *cet homme nous a fidèlement* **servis** (= this man has faithfully served us—*i.e.*, *a servi nous*).

But when they are employed as neuter verbs they have no direct complement, and their participle remains invariable. Thus: *ces livres nous ont beaucoup* **servi** (these books have been of much use to us—*i.e.*, *ont servi à nous*).

1° The participles **coûté, valu** are invariable when employed in their proper sense—that is to say, when they express the idea of price, of value. Ex.: *je regrette les dix mille francs que cette maison m'a* **coûté**, *par ce qu'elle ne les a jamais* **valu** (=I regret the ten thousand francs which that house has cost me, because it was never worth so much).—These participles vary when employed in a figurative sense—that is to say, with the meaning of *to cause, to procure*. Ex.: *n'oubliez jamais les peines que vous avez* **coûtées** *à votre mère* (=never forget the troubles you have cost your mother); *voilà les chagrins que vous a* **valus** *votre paresse* (such are the sorrows which your idleness has brought upon you).

2° The past participle of the verbs *vivre* (=to live), *dormir* (=to sleep), *régner* (=to reign), is always invariable. Ex.: *les jours qu'on a* **vécu** *dans l'oisiveté sont perdus* (=the days spent in idleness are lost); *les heures qu'elle a* **dormi** *l'ont reposée* (=the hours she has slept have rested her); just as if there was: *pendant lesquels* on a vécu . . . . *pendant lesquelles* elle a reposé . . .

603. Impersonal verbs, conjugated with *avoir* (*il a neigé, il*

a plu, il a tonné=it has snowed, it has rained, it has thundered), having no direct complement, their past participle is always necessarily invariable.—By analogy, this invariableness has been extended to the participle of active verbs employed as impersonal verbs (*les grandes chaleurs qu'il a* **fait**=the great heat there has been), although these verbs have a direct complement, exactly as active verbs properly so called.

604. Reflexive verbs, as we have seen in § 310, can either be reflexive verbs by nature (*s'écrouler*=to fall down), or active verbs (*laver*=to wash), or neuter verbs (*nuire*=to injure), employed reflexively (*se laver, se nuire*=to wash one's self, to injure one's self). According to these three cases, the rule for the syntax of past participle differs.

605. In the case of reflexive verbs by nature (*s'écrouler, s'évanouir, se cabrer*, etc.=to fall down, to faint, to rear, etc.), the past participle is always variable, and agrees with the pronoun *se*, which represents the subject (*la jument s'est* **cabrée**; *la malade s'est* **évanouie**; *la maison s'est* **écroulée**=the mare has reared; the invalid lady has fainted; the house has fallen down)—that is to say (*la jument a cabré* **elle**; *la malade a évanoui* **elle**), the auxiliary *être* in these verbs being put in the place of *avoir*, whence the agreement, as the direct complement precedes (see § 600).

The verb *s'arroger* (=to arrogate to one's self) is the only one *reflexive by nature* which does not take the preceding pronoun as its direct complement. We must accordingly write: *elles se sont* **arrogé** *certains droits qu'elles n'avaient pas* (=they have arrogated to themselves certain rights to which they had no claim). *Se* here stands for *à soi*, and is the indirect complement;—*elles n'avaient pas les droits qu'elles se sont* **arrogés** (=they had not the rights which they have arrogated to themselves). *Arrogés* agrees with *que*, put for *lesquels droits*, direct complement, and preceding the verb.

2° Under the category of verbs *reflexive by nature* certain verbs are placed, such as *apercevoir* (=to perceive), *attaquer* (=to attack), *attendre* (=to wait), *douter* (=to doubt), *plaindre* (=to pity), *prévaloir* (=to prevail), *saisir* (=to seize), *taire* (=to keep secret), etc., the meaning of which changes when they become reflexive. Ex.: *elles se sont* **pré-**

valuеs *de leur faiblesse* (=they have taken advantage of their weakness; *elles se sont* **tues** (=they have remained silent).

606. For the same reason, active verbs employed as reflexive always make their participles agree (*je me suis* **lavée**, *ils se sont* **lavés**=I washed myself, they have washed themselves)—that is to say (*ils ont lavé eux*), whilst neuter verbs employed as reflexive (*ils se sont* **nui**=they injured themselves), always remain invariable, because *se* here represents an indirect complement (*ils se sont nui*)—that is to say, *ils ont nui à eux.*

607. When the direct complement follows, the participle of the reflective verb remains naturally invariable: *elle s'est* **brûlé** *le doigt* (=she has burnt her finger); *se* is here an indirect complement (*elle* a *brûlé* le doigt *à elle*); we must not confound this case with the former one, where we have seen that the participle agrees, as in *elle s'est* **brûlée** *au doigt*—that is to say, *elle a brûlé* elle *au doigt, se* here being a direct complement.

608. The participle of neuter verbs used as reflexive verbs is always invariable, because these verbs cannot have a direct complement. Ex.: *Bien des rois se sont* **succédé** *sur le trône* (=many kings have occupied the throne in succession); *elles se sont* **ri** *de nos menaces* (=they have scorned our threats); *ils se sont* **plu** *à mal faire* (=they have delighted in doing evil).

4. Additional remarks on the agreement of the participles.

609. When the participle is followed by an infinitive (*ces femmes chantent bien; je les ai* **entendues** *chanter;—ces romances sont connues; je les ai* **entendu** *chanter à Paris*=those women sing well: I have heard them sing;—those ballads are known: I have heard them sung at Paris), it agrees if it has for direct complement the noun or pronoun which precedes, but it remains invariable if it has the infinitive for the direct complement: thus the participle *entendu* varies in this phrase: *ces femmes, je les ai entendues chanter* (=those women, I have heard

them sing), because it is those women (*ces femmes*) whom I have heard sing. *J'ai entendu qui?* (=I have heard whom?) ces femmes *chanter* (=those women singing). The direct complement of *entendu* is *ces femmes*, and as this complement comes first, the participle agrees. On the contrary, in *ces romances, je les ai entendu chanter à Paris, j'ai entendu quoi?* (=I have heard what?) *chanter* ces romances à Paris (=those ballads sung at Paris). *Entendu* having the infinitive *chanter* for direct complement, and this complement being placed after the participle, this last remains invariable (see § 600).

The participle **fait**, followed by an infinitive, is always invariable Ex.: *les maisons qu'il a* **fait** *construire* (=the houses which he has had built). The participles **dû, pu, voulu** are invariable when we can supply a verb after them. Ex.: *je lui ai rendu tous les services que j'ai* **pu** *et que j'ai* **dû** ([*lui rendre* is understood]=I have rendered him all the services which I could, and which it was my duty to render him); *je lui ai lu tous les livres qu'il a* **voulu** ([*que je lui lusse* is understood]=I have read to him all the books he wished that I should read [to him]). But we shall say: *j'ai payé les sommes que j'ai* **dues** (=I have paid the sums I owed).

610. When *le* (signifying that, *cela*) precedes the participle, this latter word is always invariable. Ex.: *sa tranquillité n'est pas aussi assurée qu'il l'aurait* **désiré** (*i.e., il aurait désiré cela*, à savoir, *que sa tranquillité fût définitivement assurée* (=his tranquillity is not so secure as he would have wished).

We have seen (§ 225) that *le* (in the sense of *cela*) is a vestige of the Latin neuter, and that for this reason the invariableness of the participle is easily explained.

611. The past participle placed between *que* relative and *que* conjunction is invariable. *Les livres* **que** *j'avais* **présumé** *que vous liriez* (=the books which I thought you would read), because here the relative *que* is the complement, not of the participle, but of the following proposition. Locutions of that kind should be avoided.

612. The past participle preceded by *en* is invariable. *T'*

le monde **m'a** *offert des services, mais personne ne* **m'en** *a rendu* (=everyone has offered me services, but no one has rendered me any).

The agreement takes place when the pronoun *en* is preceded by an adverb of quantity. Ex.: *plus il a vu de livres,* **plus** *il* **en** *a lus* (=the more books he has had, the more he has read—*i.e.*, *plus de livres* il a lus).

There is no agreement if the adverb follows the pronoun *en* instead of preceding it. Ex.: *j'***en** *ai* **beaucoup** *vu* (=I have seen many of them), *j'***en** *ai* **tant** *visité* (=I have visited so many of them).

613. The past participle preceded by the locution *le peu* varies according to the meaning of that locution.

When **le peu** signifies a small quantity, the participle agrees with the noun: **le peu** *de nourriture qu'il a* **prise** *l'a sauvé* (=the little nourishment he has taken has saved him—*i.e.*, the amount of nourishment, however small, has sufficed to save him).

When **le peu** means *insufficiency, want, lack,* the participle is invariable. Ex.: *c'est* **le peu** *de nourriture qu'il a* **pris** *qui a causé sa mort* (=it is the *insufficient* amount of food he has taken which has caused his death).

5. Summary.

614. To sum up, the past participle, joined to the auxiliary *être* (=to be), agrees with the subject; joined to the auxiliary *avoir* (=to have), it agrees with the direct complement if the complement precedes it, and remains invariable if the direct complement is placed after the participle, or if there is none at all.

615. We have seen successively the application of this general rule to the past participles of *active* verbs (§ 593), *passive* (§ 595), *neuter* with *être* (§ 596), *impersonal* with *être* (§ 597), *neuter* with *avoir* (§ 601), *impersonal* with *avoir* (§ 603), *reflexive by nature* (§ 605), *reflexive by accident,* either *neuter* (§ 606) or *active* (§ 606); finally, to participles followed by an *infinitive* (§ 609), or accompanied by certain locutions (§§ 610–613).

CHAPTER VIII.

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

616. The negative consists of two parts, one of which is always *ne;* the other varies according to the meaning. The principal adverbs are—

ne .... *pas* =not
ne .... *point* =not at all
ne .... *rien* =nothing
ne .... *jamais* =never
ne .... *plus* =no .... more.

617. If *pas* or *point* is followed by a noun in the partitive sense, this noun is simply preceded by *de:*

Affirm.: *J'ai* du *pain* (=I have some bread)
Negat.: *Je n'ai pas* de *pain* (=I have no bread).

618. With the *present* infinitive the two parts of the negative are not separated, as—

Ne pas se venger (=not to revenge one's self)
Ne plus écrire (=to write no more).

619. If the verb is in the perfect of the infinitive, it is optional to separate them or not, as—

Not to have slept { *ne pas avoir dormi* / *n'avoir pas dormi.*

620. Without a verb, the negatives stand without *ne*, as—

Pas à la fois (=not at once) *Pas moi* (=not I)
Pas beaucoup (=not much) *Pas trop* (=not too much)
Pas tant (=not so much) *Pas aujourd'hui* (=not to-day), etc.

621. *Non plus* (=neither) requires the full negation *ne—pas* before it, as—

Je ne le veux pas non plus (=neither will I have it).

622. If *nor—either* is connected only with a noun or pronoun, without a verb, the noun or the pronoun is preceded, in French, by *ni*, as—

Ni Charles non plus (=nor Charles either).

623. Observe the expression *ne—que* for only, as—

Je **n'***ai* **que** *deux sœurs* (=I have only two sisters).

624. When the idea expressed by two verbs which follow one another is negative, *ne* is used according to the rule we shall now state. 1° If *ne* is in the first clause of the sentence, it must not appear in the second. We should say, accordingly: *il* **n'***agit pas autrement qu'il parle* (= he does not act otherwise than he speaks), and not *il* **n'***agit pas autrement qu'il* **ne** *parle*. 2° When *ne* is not in the first clause of the sentence, it must be used in the second: *Je crains qu'il* **ne** *vienne* (= I fear he will come).

625. Ne is used before the second verb:

1° After words expressing apprehension of fear, such as the verbs *appréhender* (=to apprehend), *avoir peur* (=to dread), *prendre garde* (=to take care), *craindre* (=to fear), *empêcher* (=to prevent), etc. Ex.: *craignez qu'on* **ne** *lui parle* (=fear lest anyone should speak to him), *prends garde qu'il* **ne** *sorte* (=take care lest he should go out); or with the conjunctive locutions: *de crainte que, de peur que* (for fear lest....), etc., *taisez vous, de peur qu'on* **ne** *vous entende* (=hold your tongue lest anyone should hear you).

2° After a comparative of *inferiority* or *superiority*: *il est plus savant que vous* **ne** *pensez* (=he is more learned than you think); *il est moins riche qu'on* **ne** *croit* (=he is less rich than people imagine).

626. Ne is suppressed before the second verb:

1° After a verb accompanied by a negation. Ex.: *je ne crains pas qu'il vienne* (=I do not dread his coming).

2° After *défendre* (=to prohibit): *il défendit qu'aucun étranger entrât dans la ville* (=he prohibited all strangers from entering the town).

3° After the locutions *avant que* (=before), *sans que* (=without): *j'irai le voir avant qu'il parte* (=I shall go and see him before his departure); *je ne puis parler sans qu'il interrompe* (=I cannot speak without his interrupting me.

After *empêcher* (=to hinder), *douter* (=to doubt), *nier* (=to deny), *disconvenir* (=to disagree), *contester* (=to contest), used negatively, *ne* may be inserted: *on* **ne** *peut douter que les pôles* **ne** *soient couverts de glace* (=we cannot doubt but that the poles are covered with ice). *Cf.* §§ 642, 643.

627. Pas and **point** are suppressed **after** the verbs *savoir* and *pouvoir*. Ex.: *il ne sait ce qu'il dit* (=he does not know what he is saying), *je ne pourrai le voir aujourd'hui* (=I shall not be able to see him to-day).

628. Point is more emphatic than **pas**. *Je ne l'aime* **pas** (=I do not like him, her, or it), *je ne l'aime* **point** (=I do not like him, her, or it at all).

629. Plus tôt, plutôt.—Plus tôt in two words means *sooner* (*avant*), and is the opposite of **plus tard** (=later). *Il est arrivé* **plus tôt** *que vous* (=he arrived sooner than you).

Plutôt in one word expresses an idea of choice, preference: **Plutôt** *la mort que le déshonneur* (=death rather than dishonour).

Plus tôt and *plutôt* were originally one and the same word. The distinction between them is only of a recent date, and old editions do not recognise it.

CHAPTER IX.

SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS.

630. Prepositions are always placed, in French, before the word to which they relate, and never after, as is sometimes the case in English, as—

De *quoi se plaint-il ?* (=what does he complain of?)

Durant is the exception; we say: **sa vie durant** (=during *his life*). (See § 448.)

631. The preposition **à** is used for *to*, *at*, or *in*, before proper names of places, such as towns, villages, etc., and the preposition **en** is used for *to* or *in* before names of countries and provinces, as—

Mon père est **à** *Paris* (=my father is *at* or *in* Paris)
Nous allons **en** *Ecosse* (=we are going *to* Scotland).

If, however, the name of the country requires the article, the preposition **à** is used; as, *il est* **au** *Brésil* (= he is in Brazils).

632. **En** is used with nouns taken in a vague and indeterminate sense, and is not generally followed by the article. **Dans**, on the contrary, is used with nouns taken in a more determinate sense, and requires the article; as, *j'étais* **en** *Angleterre*, **dans** *le comté de Middlesex* (=I was in England, in the county of Middlesex). **En** is used before a pronoun; as, *mon espoir est* **en** *vous* (=my hope is in you).

NOTICE the difference of meaning between **en** and **à** in the following phrases: *le général est* **à la** *campagne* (=the general is in the country); *le général est* **en** *campagne* (=the general has taken the field).

633. **Vers** (=towards) is used with reference to nouns which indicate place or time; as, *Vers la porte. Vers le quatorzième siècle* (=towards the fourteenth century). **Envers** means *with*

regard to, and is used after words implying behaviour; as, *charitable* **envers** *les pauvres* (=charitable to the poor).

634. Care must be taken not to confound the prepositions **sur** (= upon) and **sous** (= under) with the corresponding adverbs **dessus** (= above) and **dessous** (= underneath).

635. **Vis-à-vis** (=opposite) is construed with **de**. Ex.: *je me plaçai* **vis-à-vis** *de lui* (= I placed myself opposite him).

On *vis-à-vis*, see § 449.

636. The prepositive locution **vis à vis** is never used figuratively. We must say *ingrat* **envers** *son bienfaiteur*, and not **vis-à-vis** *de son bienfaiteur* (=ungrateful towards his benefactor).

637. In the colloquial style custom sanctions the following phrases: **vis-à-vis** *notre maison*, **vis-à-vis** *le palais* (= opposite our house, opposite the palace).

638. **Au travers** is always followed by the preposition **de**, **à travers** never takes it. Ex.: *il se fit jour* **au travers** *des ennemis* (=he fought his way through the enemies); *il marchait* **à travers** *les épines* (=he was walking through the thorns).

639. **Voici** announces what we are about to say; **voilà** recalls what has been said. **Voici** *ce que je vous apporte: une histoire, une grammaire, un atlas* (=here is what I bring you: a history, a grammar, an atlas); *la prudence et la sagesse*, **voilà** *ce que Salomon demanda à Dieu* (= prudence and wisdom, that is what Solomon asked of God).

640. All prepositions in French require the verb in the infinitive (present *or* perfect), except **en**, which takes the present participle.

CHAPTER X.

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

641. Among the simple conjunctions there is only one which governs the subjunctive mood, viz., *quoique* (= though *or* although). As—

Quoique je sois malade (=though I am ill).

642. *À moins que* (=unless), *de crainte que*, or *de peur que* (= for fear that), require *ne* before the following verb in the subjunctive mood, as—

Il n'ira pas, à moins que *vous* ne *lui demandiez*	He will not go *unless* you ask him
Allez-vous-en bien vite, de peur qu'*il* ne *soit trop tard*	Go away quickly, *lest* it should be too late.

643. *À moins que* (=unless) followed by a verb in the infinitive mood, requires the preposition *de* without the negation; as, *je ne pouvais pas lui parler plus fortement à moins que* **de** *le quereller* (=I could not speak to him in stronger terms unless I scolded him). The *que* may be omitted: *à moins de le quereller*.

644. When a conjunction governs **several** verbs, it is placed before the first verb only, and *que* is used before the other verbs, as—

Comme il est appliqué et qu'il prend de la peine (=as he is diligent and takes pains).

645. The conjunction **ni** serves to unite:

1° Two negative propositions: *il ne boit* **ni** *ne mange* (=he neither eats nor drinks).

2° Two propositions depending on a negative proposition: *je ne crois pas qu'il vienne*, **ni** *même qu'il pense à venir* (= I do not believe that he will come, or even that he thinks of coming).

Ni is also used instead of **pas**: *il n'est* **ni** *bon* **ni** *mauvais* (=he is neither good nor bad).

646. Quand is a conjunction and expresses the same idea as *quoique* (=although) and *lorsque* (=when). Ex.: *je viendrais* **quand** *même il pleuvrait* (=I shall come, even if it were to rain), *je partirai* **quand** *j'aurai fini* (=I shall go when I have done).

Quant followed by **à** is a prepositive locution, meaning the same thing as *pour, à l'égard de* (as for...), **quant à** *moi, je n'en ferai rien* (= as for me, I shall do nothing of the kind).

On *quand*, see §§ 427, 452.—*Quant à* is an elliptic locution derived from the Latin *quantum (pertinet) ad.*

647. The conjunction **que** is often employed:

1° Instead of the conjunctive locutions *afin que* (=in order that), *sans que* (= without), *depuis que* (= since), etc., *venez* **que** *je vous le montre* (= come, in order that I may show it to you), *je ne puis parler* **qu'***il ne m'interrompe* (= I cannot speak without his interrupting me).

2° In order to avoid the repetition of the conjunctions *comme, quand,* and *si*: *comme il était tard et* **qu'***on craignait la chute du jour, on battit la retraite* (= as it was late, and they were afraid of the dusk coming on, they sounded a retreat); *quand on est jeune et* **qu'***on se porte bien, on doit travailler* (= when one is young, and in good health, one must work); *si vous le rencontrez, et* **qu'***il vous aborde, ne dites rien* (=if you meet him, and he should accost you, say nothing).

648. Care must be taken not to confound **parce que** and **par ce que. Parce que** (in two words) is a conjunctive locution, which is the same as the phrase *par la raison que* (=for the reason that). *Je me tais parce que je crains* (=I am silent, because [for the reason that] I am afraid.

Par ce que (in three words) is a locution identical with *par la chose que, d'après la chose que* (=from, or, by the thing which). Ex.: *Je suis instruit* **par ce que** *mon père m'a dit* (= I am informed in consequence of what my father has told me—*i.e., par cela que mon père m'a dit*).

649. Quoique should not be confounded with **quoi que. Quoique** (in one word) is a conjunction corresponding to *bien que* (= although): **quoique** *paresseux, il réussit assez bien* (= although he is idle, he succeeds tolerably well).

Quoi que (in two words) means: *quelle que soit le chose que* (= whatever the thing may be). Ex.: **quoi que** *vous disiez, il fait la sourde oreille* (= whatever you may say, he turns a deaf ear).

SECOND PART.

SYNTAX OF PROPOSITIONS.

I.—Definitions.

650. The first part of the Syntax has taught us to join together two or more *words* in order to form a **simple proposition**; the second part will teach us to unite two or more *simple propositions* in order to make **a compound proposition.**

651. There are only *two* ways of uniting simple propositions in order to form a compound proposition; either simple propositions remain independent of one another, and we merely place them side by side (*je suis venu, j'ai vu, j'ai vaincu*=I came, I saw, I conquered); or we join them together by a conjunction (*Dieu est juste* et *sa bonté est infinie*, God is just, and His goodness is infinite); or if we take simple propositions, the one depends upon the other, is subject to it, is its *subordinate*, and we then obtain a compound proposition composed of two simple propositions, the one *principal*, the other *dependent*. *L'homme* **sait que** *l'âme est immortelle* (= man knows that the soul is immortal) is a proposition composed of two simple propositions: *l'homme sait* and *l'âme est immortelle*; but the second *depends* upon the first, which is called the *principal* proposition.

652. There are, then, two kinds of **compound propositions**, and there are only two: 1st. The first, composed of two or more simple propositions, independent the one of the other (*le roi est mort* et *son fils lui a succédé*=the king is dead and his son has succeeded him); 2nd. The second, composed of two simple propositions, of which one is the *principal*, and the other is *dependent* or *subordinate*.

653. We have seen (§ 462) that every proposition contains three terms: the *subject*, the *verb*, and the *attribute*.

654. The subject is said to be—1° *simple*, when there is only one (**l'homme** *est mortel* = man is mortal); 2° *multiple*, when there are more than one (**le loup et le chien** *ont une origine commune* = the wolf and the dog have a common origin); 3° *complex*, when there is a complement (**l'herbe du jardin** *est verte* = the grass in the garden is green); 4° *non-complex*, when there is no complement (**l'herbe** *est verte* = the grass is green).

655. In like manner the attribute is said to be—1° *simple*, when there is only one (*l'homme est* **mortel** = man is mortal); 2° *multiple*, when there are more than one (*il est* **grand et fort** = he is tall and strong); 3° *complex*, when there is a complement (*il est* **incapable de marcher** = he is incapable of walking); 4° *non-complex*, when there is no complement (*il est* **incapable** = he is incapable).

656. Generally speaking there are in a sentence as many propositions as verbs: *quand il* arriva,—*son fils* se jeta *dans ses bras*—*en* pleurant (= when he arrived, his son fell into his arms, weeping); there are in this sentence three verbs, and therefore three propositions.

657. But in certain sentences containing only one verb in the subjunctive (*que Dieu vous assiste* = may God help you), or in the imperative (*allez!* = go!), or, lastly, in an interrogative form (*qui a dit cela?* = who has said that?), there is always an indicative understood (**je désire** *que Dieu vous assiste* = I wish that God may help you; **je veux** *que vous alliez* = I insist on your going; **je demande** *qui a dit cela* = I ask who has said that), because in phrases such as these the mind really discovers two propositions.

These sentences are called *elliptical*, because there is in them an *ellipsis* or suppression of words.

658. It is the same when, in order to impart greater rapidity to the speech, we suppress one of the verbs of the compound proposition (*je l'aime* **comme** *mon frère—i.e.*, **comme j'aime** *mon frère* = I love him as my brother), or even both verbs: thus *au feu!* (fire!) really means **allons** *au feu!* = let us go to the fire!—*i.e.*, *il* **est** *nécessaire que nous* **allions** *au feu* = it is necessary that we should go to the fire. In this sentence, although no verb is expressed, there are nevertheless two propositions.

659. The verb of the principal proposition is always in the indicative mood, because the indicative is the *affirming* mood, and every principal proposition conveys some affirmation.

660. Every verb in another mood than the indicative belongs to a dependent proposition.

II.—Of the subordinate proposition.

661. We can study every dependent or subordinate proposition from two points of view: 1st. That of the *sense*—that is to say, of the change or modification introduced by the dependent proposition into the meaning of the principal proposition; 2nd. That of *form*—that is to say, of the manner in which the dependent proposition is grammatically united to the principal one.

1° From the point of view of sense, *je viendrai—quand il fera nuit* (= I shall come when it is dark) is a phrase composed of a principal proposition (*je viendrai*) which affirms an action, and of a dependent one (*quand il fera nuit*), which shows at what moment the action, indicated in the principal proposition, will be performed.

2° From the point of view of form, *je viendrai—quand il fera nuit*, is a proposition composed of a dependent proposition united to the principal one by the conjunction *quand* (=when).

662. From the point of view of *sense*, subordinate propositions are of two kinds:

1°. Some are *indispensable* to the principal proposition, for the purpose of completing its meaning. Example: *Il faudra—que vous veniez nous voir* (=you must come and see us). The subordinate proposition *que vous veniez nous voir* gives the real sense to the whole of the proposition—in a word, **completes** it, whence its name of **completive** *subordinate proposition.*

2° Others merely modify the principal proposition by expressing some accessory *circumstance*; for example, the time, the place, the cause (*j'irai* quand *vous serez à Paris; venez me voir*, lorsque *vous irez à la campagne*=I shall go when you are at Paris; come and see me when you go into the country). *Quand vous serez à Paris, lorsque vous irez à la campagne*, are dependent propositions which modify the principal one by introducing various secondary **circumstances** of time or of place. They are called for this reason **circumstantial** *subordinate propositions.*

663. From the point of view of *form*, the French language constructs dependent propositions, and unites them to the principal one, in five different ways.

664. The dependent proposition is formed: 1° either by the help of a **participle** (*Je lis*—en marchant=I read, whilst walking; *le coupable* — poursuivi par la justice, — *sera bientôt atteint*=the guilty one, pursued by justice, will soon be overtaken);—2° by the help of an **infinitive** (*J'aime* à travailler=I like to work);—3° by the aid of a **conjunction** (*Je sais*—que—*Dieu est bon*=I know that God is good);—4° by the help of a **relative pronoun** (*Aimez Dieu*—qui—*vous protége*=love God, who protects you).

665. We have thus divided dependent or subordinate propositions into *four* classes, calling them respectively, **participial** *propositions*, **infinitive** *propositions*, **conjunctive** *propositions*, **relative** *propositions.* We shall review them briefly.

CHAPTER I.

PARTICIPIAL PROPOSITIONS.

666. The name of **participial** is given to every dependent proposition of which the verb is in the participle, either present (*je lis—en* marchant=I read while walking) or past (*l'homme* —poussé *par la faim—devient criminel*=man, forced by hunger, becomes criminal). *En marchant, poussé par la faim,* are participial propositions.

667. The participle can occupy three different places in the proposition: 1° it can refer to the subject (l'homme *poussé par la faim*—devient criminel (= man, forced by hunger, becomes criminal); 2° it may refer to the **complement** (plaignons l'homme — *tombé dans le vice* = let us pity the man who has fallen into vice); 3° it may apparently refer neither to the subject nor to the complement (tout *étant fini,* nous nous séparâmes=all being finished, we separated). In this last case it is called the **absolute participle.**

668. When the participial proposition refers to the subject, and when the subject precedes it (*l'enfant* — ayant mangé des mets empoisonnés,—*mourut sur-le-champ* = the child, having eaten some poisoned food, died on the spot), the subject must not be repeated before the verb. It would therefore be wrong to say: *l'enfant,* ayant mangé des mets empoisonnés, **il** *mourut sur-le-champ.*

669. The participle should always refer clearly to a word expressed in the sentence. Thus, it would be wrong to say: *en vous* **accordant** *cette faveur, c'est me procurer un véritable plaisir;* we must say, instead: *en vous* **accordant** *cette faveur, je me procure un véritable plaisir* (= in granting you that favour, I procure for myself a real pleasure).

CHAPTER II.

INFINITIVE PROPOSITIONS.

670. Every dependent proposition, of which the verb is in the infinitive, is called an **infinitive proposition** (*il aspire*—à régner; *il aime*—à travailler=he aspires to reign; he likes to work).

671. The infinitive may refer either to the subject (*le désir*—de vaincre—*le poussait aux combats*=the wish to conquer induced him to fight) or to the complement (*il travaillait par désir*—de régner=he worked from the wish to reign).

672. The subject of the verb in the infinitive ought to be the same as that of the verb of the principal proposition (cet *enfant s'accoutume*—à dormir—*pendant le jour*=that child takes the habit of sleeping during the day). *Accoutume* and *dormir* have the same subject. But we cannot say: **on** *le renvoya sans* **avoir** *rien obtenu* (=they sent him back without having obtained anything), because the person who sends away, and he who has obtained nothing are two distinct persons. It is therefore necessary to explain clearly these two subjects, and to say: **on** *le renvoya sans qu'***il** *eût rien obtenu*, or to give one single subject to the compound proposition by making use of the passive; thus: **il** *fut renvoyé* sans avoir *rien obtenu*.

CHAPTER III.

CONJUNCTIVE PROPOSITIONS.

673. Every dependent proposition united to the principal one by a conjunction is called a **conjunctive proposition** (*j'espère* que *vous viendrez*=I hope you will come). *Que vous viendrez* is a conjunctive proposition.

As early as the downfall of the Roman empire, we find in Latin texts numerous examples of the modern conjunctive proposition supplanting the infinitive proposition of classical writers (*Tradunt Homerum cæcum* **fuisse**). The documents of the Merovingian epoch often give us phrases such as the following: *dixerunt* quod verum est . . . . *asserunt* quod *injustè* facit . . ., etc.

674. We have seen in § 451 that conjunctions are of two kinds: **simple** conjunctions, or conjunctions properly so-called (*quand, comme, si, car*, etc.=when, as, if, for, etc.), and compound conjunctions, called **conjunctive locutions** (*à moins que, pourvu que, soit que, afin que, avant que*, unless that, provided that, whether, in order that, before that). In conjunctive propositions we must therefore distinguish between those which are formed by the help of simple conjunctions from those formed by the aid of conjunctive locutions.

675. The verb of the dependent proposition is generally put in the indicative after a **simple** conjunction (*je viendrai*—quand —*il vous plaira; je le ferai*—si—*vous le voulez; j'agirai*—comme —*il vous plaira*=I will come when it pleases you; I will do it if you like; I will act as you please), whereas it is put in the subjunctive after a **conjunctive locution** (*je me lève*—avant qu'il *fasse jour; il marche bien*,—quoiqu'*il soit boiteux; retenez-le* de peur qu'*il ne s'en aille*=I get up before daybreak; he walks well, although he is lame; detain him for fear he should go away). But this rule is not absolute, and it admits of a certain number of exceptions which we must point out.

I—Use of the indicative and of the subjunctive.

676. The following conjunctive locutions must always have the indicative after them: *à mesure que, ainsi que, attendu que, aussi bien que, aussitôt que, autant que, de même que, depuis que, dès que, durant que, non plus que, outre que, parce que, pendant que, tandis que, tant que, vu que* (=in proportion as, even as, whereas, as well as, as soon as, as much as, the same as, since

that, since, whilst that, no more than, besides, because, whilst, during, as much, considering that).

677. The six conjunctive locutions *de manière que, de sorte que, en sort eque, si ce n'est que, sinon que, tellement que* (=so that, in such a manner that, if it is only that, except that, so much that) are sometimes followed by the indicative, and sometimes by the subjunctive. 1° They are followed by the indicative when the phrase expresses a fact *positive, certain, absolute: cet enfant s'est conduit* de telle sorte que *tous ses parents ont été contents* (=that child conducted himself in such a manner, that all his relations were pleased with him). 2° They are followed by the subjunctive when the phrase expresses a fact in the *future, and which may not take place at all: faites* en sorte qu'*il vienne, conduisez-vous* de telle sorte que *tout le monde* soit *content de vous* (=act so that he may come; conduct yourself, so that everyone may be pleased with you.

678. The following conjunctive locutions always require the subjunctive after them: *afin que* (= in order that), *à moins que* (= unless), *avant que* (= before), *en cas que* (= in case that), *bien que* (= although), *de peur que, de crainte que* (= for fear lest), *jusqu'à ce que* (= until), *loin que* (= far from), *non que* (= not but that), *pour que* (= in order that), *pourvu que* (= provided that), *sans que* (= without that), *pour peu que* (= for ever so little that), *soit que* (= whether that), *supposé que* (= supposing that), *quoique* (= although). Ex.: *j'irai le voir* **avant qu'il parte** (=I shall go and see him before he starts), *la terre ne s'épuise jamais,* **pourvu qu'***on* **sache** *la cultiver* (=the earth is never exhausted, provided one knows how to cultivate it) *je lirai* **jusqu'à ce que** *vous* **veniez** (=I shall read till you come).

679. When the phrase includes two dependent propositions with *si* [=if] (*Ma tristesse serait grande,* **si** *Charles venait en France, et s'il passait par Paris sans me voir*=my sorrow would be great if Charles came to France, and if he passed by Paris without seeing me), the second *si* may be replaced by *que;* but in this case the verb preceded by *que* is put in the subjunctive (*Ma tris-*

tesse serait grande **si** *Charles* **venait** *en France* et **qu'il passât** *par Paris sans me voir*=my sorrow would be great if Charles came to France and that he should pass by Paris without seeing me).

680. The subjunctive is used: 1° After verbs which express *doubt, desire, fear, surprise, supposition, will.* Ex.: *je* **doute** *qu'il* **sache** *sa leçon* (=I doubt whether he knows his lesson); *je* **crains** *qu'il ne* **parte** (=I fear lest he should go); *je* **désire** *qu'il* **vienne** (=I wish he may come); *je* **suis surpris** *que vous* **soyez** *arrivé* (=I am surprised at your having arrived); *je* **suppose** *qu'il* **lise** *ce livre* (=I suppose that he will read this book); *je* **veux** *qu'il* **sorte** (=I insist upon his going out).

2° After verbs put interrogatively or accompanied by a negation. Ex.: *croyez vous qu'il* **parte**? (=do you think he will start?); *pensez vous qu'il* **vienne**? (=do you suppose he will come?); *je ne présume pas qu'il soit* **arrivé** (=I do not presume he is arrived).

3° After the impersonal verbs *il faut, il importe, il convient, il est possible*, etc. (=it is necessary, it is of consequence, it is proper, it is possible), and, generally speaking, after all those which express will, supposition, or doubt. Ex.: *il faut qu'il* **vienne** (=he must come); *il importe qu'il soit ici* (=it is of consequence that he should be here); *il convient qu'il* **sorte** (=it is proper that he should go out); *il est possible qu'il* **dorme** (=it is possible that he is asleep), etc.

681. But the indicative is used even after verbs expressing *supposition* or *will*, when the thing in question is considered as very probable. Ex.: *je suppose qu'il* **lit** *le livre que vous lui avez prêté* (=I suppose that he reads the book you have lent him); *je prétends qu'il* **est** *là* (=I maintain that he is there).

682. The same rule holds good in the case of a verb conjugated interrogatively, or accompanied by a negation, when the thing alluded to is considered as certain or extremely probable. Thus, we shall say: *croyez vous que l'âme* **est** *immortelle?* (=do you believe that the soul is immortal?), because we consider the immortality of the soul as a *certain* fact; *vous ne dites pas que*

Paul **est** *mon ami* (= you do not say that Paul is my friend), because *I affirm* that Paul is my friend.

683. The indicative is likewise used after impersonal verbs such as *il est clair* (=it is clear), which express certainty, probability. Ex. : *il est certain que la terre* **se meut** *dans l'espace* (= it is certain that the earth moves in space); *il est clair que deux et deux* **font** *quatre* (= it is clear that two and two make four); *il est probable que* **le ciel** *s'éclaircira* (= the sky will probably clear up).

As negation destroys certainty or probability, the same verbs conjugated negatively require the subjunctive after them. Ex. : *n'est il pas probable que le ciel* **s'éclaircisse** ? (=is it not likely that the sky will clear up ?).

684. To sum up, if the idea expressed in the subordinate proposition is looked upon as certain and positive, the verb of that proposition is put in the *indicative*.—If the idea expressed is considered as doubtful or simply probable, the verb is put in the *subjunctive*.

II.—Use of the tenses of the subjunctive.

685. We have seen the cases where the verb of the dependent proposition is put in the subjunctive, but we have not yet pointed out in which tense of the subjunctive mood this verb ought to be put.

686. The use of the tenses of the subjunctive depends entirely on the idea we wish to express; the only rule to be observed, therefore, is the following one; *see in what tense of the* **indicative** *or the* **conditional** *you would put the second verb, if the sentence required one of these two moods, and put the corresponding tense of the subjunctive.*

REMARK.—1° The subjunctive *present* corresponds to the indicative *present* and *future*.

2° The *imperfect* subjunctive corresponds to the *imperfect* of the indicative and the conditional *present*.

3° The subjunctive *perfect* corresponds to the *past definite*, the *past indefinite*, and the *future anterior*.

4° The subjunctive *pluperfect* corresponds to the *pluperfect* indicative and the conditional *perfect*.

687. The subjunctive **present** is used—1° after the present tense: *il* **faut** *que je* **sorte** (= I must go out); 2° after the past tense: *les Romains de ce siècle* **n'ont** *pas* **eu** *un seul poète qui* **vaille** *la peine d'être cité* (= the Romans of that century have not had one single poet worth mentioning); 2° after the future: *il* **faudra** *que je* **parte** (=I shall have to go); 4° after the conditional: *qui* **pourrait** *douter qu'il* **soit** *homme de bien?* (= who could doubt his being a good man?).

688. The **imperfect** subjunctive is used—1° after the present tense: **crois**-*tu que je ne* **connusse** *pas à fond les sentiments de mon père?* (=did you think I did not know thoroughly my father's opinion?); 3° after the past tense: *Mentor* **voulait** *des jeux qui* **amusassent** (= Mentor wanted sports which might amuse); 3° after the future: *je ne* **nierai** *pas qu'il ne* **fût** *un homme de mérite* (= I shall not deny his being a man of merit); 4° after the conditional: *il* **faudrait** *que j'***écrivisse** *maintenant* (=I ought to write now).

689. The **perfect** subjunctive is used—1° after the present tense: **crois**-*tu que dans son cœur* **il ait** *juré sa mort?* (= do you think that in his heart he has vowed to put him to death?); 2° after the past tense: *je* **n'ai** *jamais trouvé personne qui m'***ait** *assez aimé pour me dire la vérité* (= I have never found anyone who loved me enough to tell me the truth); 3° after the future: *on ne* **croira** *pas qu'il* **ait** *réussi* (=no one will believe that he has succeeded); 4° after the conditional: *qui* **croirait** *que cette pièce* **ait eu** *trois cents représentations?* (= who would believe that this play has had a run of three hundred nights?).

690. The **pluperfect** subjunctive is used—1° after the present tense: *je* **doute** *qu'il* **eût** *réussi mieux que vous* (=I doubt whether he would have met with more success than you); 2° after the past tense: *j'***ignorais** *qu'il* **fût** *arrivé* (=I did no

know he had arrived); 3° after the future: *je* **douterai** *toujours qu'il* **eût** *réussi mieux que vous* (=I shall always doubt whether he would have met with more success than you); 4° after the conditional: *je* **voudrais** *seulement que vous* **l'eussiez** *connu* (=I only wish you could have known him).

691. The examples just given show that in the choice of the tenses of the subjunctive, the verb of the subordinate proposition always depends upon the verb of the principal proposition, and is subject to the two following rules.

692. If the verb of the principal proposition is in the **present** or the **future** of the **indicative** (*je défends, je défendrai*, =I defend, I will defend), the verb of the dependent proposition is put in the **present** of the **subjunctive**, supposing the action has still to be performed (*je défends qu'*il vienne,—*je défendrai qu'*il vienne=I will forbid him to come,—I will forbid him to come), and in the **perfect** of the **subjunctive**, when the action is already performed (*je doute que* vous ayez pu *le faire*,—*je douterai toujours que* vous ayez pu *le faire*=I doubt whether you would have been able to do it,—I shall always doubt....).

693. If the verb of the principal proposition is in one of the **past** or the **conditional** tenses (*je voulais, je voulus, j'avais voulu, je voudrais*=I wished, I had wished, I should wish), the verb of the dependent proposition is put in the **imperfect** of the **subjunctive**, provided the action has still to be performed (*je voulais qu'*il vînt, *je voudrais qu'*il vînt, *j'ai voulu qu'*il vînt=I wished that he might come, I wish...., I have wished....), and it is put in the **pluperfect** of the subjunctive when the action has already been performed (*je ne savais pas* que vous eussiez *déjà étudié ce livre si complétement*;—*je n'aurais pas voulu qu'*il eût fait *cette déclaration*=I did not know that you had already studied that book so thoroughly;—I should not have wished him to make that declaration).

694. These rules only admit of two exceptions:—

1st. When the phrase expresses the idea of any condition (the

principal verb being in the *present* or in the *future* of the indicative) the verb of the dependent proposition is placed in the *imperfect* or in the *pluperfect* of the subjunctive (je ne croirai jamais *qu'il eût osé le faire*, **si on le lui avait défendu**=I will never believe that he would have dared to do it, if they had forbidden him).

2nd. When the phrase expresses a permanent fact, which reproduces itself or which has existed for a long time, the dependent verb (whatever may be the tense of the principal one) is always put in the *present* of the *subjunctive* (*Dieu a voulu que l'homme* **éprouve** (and not **éprouvât**) *sa puissance*=God has willed that man should feel His power).

CHAPTER IV.

RELATIVE PROPOSITIONS.

695. Every dependent proposition united to the principal one by a relative pronoun is called a **relative proposition** (Craignons Dieu - qui - nous protége = let us fear God - who - protects us. J'aime l'enfant - qui - est courageux = I love the child - who - is courageous). *Qui nous protége, qui est courageux* are *relative propositions.*

696. After a relative in phrases which express will, desire, doubt, negation, the verb of the dependent proposition is put in the **subjunctive** (*je veux un serviteur* qui *m'*obéisse: *je ne connais personne* qui soit *vraiment heureux* = I wish for a servant who may obey me. I don't know anybody who is really happy).

697. The dependent verb is likewise put in the subjunctive when the relative is preceded by the word *seul* (only), or by a *superlative* (*Votre frère est le* seul - **qui** - **soit** *habile; il est aussi l'homme* le plus *adroit* **que** *je* **connaisse** = your brother is the only one who is clever, he is also the most skilful man I know).

698. The only exception to these two rules is when the verb of the dependent proposition includes an absolute affirmation: *j'ai rencontré un ouvrier* **qui** *m'a tiré d'embarras* = I met a workman who extricated me from my difficulties; *achetez tous les meilleurs vins* **que** *vous* **trouverez**, *et expédiez-les-moi* = buy all the best wines you find, and send them at once to me).

APPENDIX.

OF ANALYSIS.

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OF ANALYSIS.

699. The second book (*Study of Words*) has taught us the special force of each part of speech; the third book (*Syntax*) has shown us how words are joined together and combined to express our thoughts.

700. To make these grammatical rules more familiar to the pupil, he must now perform the contrary operation: he has learnt how to **compose** phrases according to the rules laid down by grammar; he must now be taught to divide a phrase into its simple elements—that is to say, into its words, in order to show the value and importance of each. This *decomposition* is called by grammarians **analysis** (from the Greek ἀνάλυσις—*i.e.*, the decomposition, the resolution of a compound into its elements).

701. When a being or an object presents itself to our mind we necessarily examine it from three points of view—its nature, its form, its function; we first of all try to find out its *nature*, whether it is a plant or an animal, a horse or a dog, etc). After we have determined its nature, we ask ourselves what is its *form*. If we know, for example, that it is a dog, we endeavour to ascertain how it differs from creatures of the same kind. The study of *form* tells us if this dog is male or female, old or young, beautiful or ugly, fat or thin, etc. When we know the nature and the form of the animal, it remains for us to determine what is its *function*, in order that the idea may be completed.—Does the dog keep in the house? is it employed in hunting? does it turn the mill?

When we have found an answer to these three questions—*nature*, *form*, and *function*—our idea of the being or of the object is complete.

702. Grammar teaches us, in like manner, to study words under three aspects: their **nature** (if, for example, they are adjectives or verbs, articles or nouns), their **form** (if they are masculine or feminine, singular or plural), finally, their **function** in the phrase (do they serve as a subject or as an attribute?). Analysis, which divides the different kinds of words of which a phrase is formed, therefore includes three operations: the analysis of the **nature of words**, of the **form of words**, of the **function of words.**

703. Let us, for example, analyse this short sentence: *la nouvelle princesse est maniérée* (the new princess is affected), and study the words:

1st. As to their **nature**: *la* is a definite article (see § 142); *nouvelle*, a qualificative adjective (see § 149); *princesse*, a substantive (see § 64) derived from the masculine *prince* by the suffix *esse*, which is used (see § 70) to form the feminine; *est* is a verb (see § 294); *maniérée* is an adjective (see § 149) derived from the substantive *manière*, by the suffix *é*, which is used to form (see § 184) new adjectives from nouns.—This first kind of analysis is very important, because it accustoms us to know the precise value of words, and the changes of meaning caused by different prefixes or suffixes.

2nd. As to their **grammatical** form: the four words *la* (§ 142), *nouvelle* (§ 153, *c*), *princesse* (§ 70), *maniérée* (§ 151), are in the singular feminine; *est* is the third person of the indicative present of the verb *être* (see § 294). It is superfluous to add that the pupil ought to explain why the last *e* of *maniérée* serves to mark the feminine (see § 151), and why the feminine *nouvelle* is irregularly formed from *nouveau* (see § 155).

3rd. As to their **function**—that is to say, their logical place in the sentence: *la princesse est maniérée* is a phrase composed of a single proposition (see § 462), inasmuch as there is only one verb (see § 656); of a principal proposition, as this verb is in the indicative (see § 659).—The subject of the proposition (see § 653) is *princesse*, whose complement is the adjective *nouvelle* (see § 464); the verb (see § 462) is *est;* the adjective *maniérée* forms the attribute (see § 462), which is simple (see § 655) and non-complex see § 655).

704. The first kind of analysis which treats of the *nature* of words is called **etymological analysis**; the second, which treats of their grammatical *forms*, bears the name of **grammatical analysis**; the third, which treats of their *function* in the phrase, is called **logical analysis**.

BIOGRAPHICAL LIST

OF ALL THE PERSONS QUOTED IN THE GRAMMAR.

ALEXIS (Saint) [? 350—?].—A mediæval poem on his life and martyrdom has been published by M. Gaston Paris.

ARNAULD (Antoine) [1612-1694].—One of the most distinguished amongst the Port-Royalist writers. His complete works have been published at Lausanne [1775-1783] in forty-eight quarto volumes.

AUGUSTINUS (Aurelius) [354-430].—Bishop of Hippo, 395. The best edition of his works is the Benedictine one, in ten folio volumes, Paris, 1679 and following years.

BOILEAU DESPRÉAUX (Nicolas) [1636-1711].—The great literary legislator of the age of Louis XIV. *Satires* [1660]; *l'Art poétique*, *Le Lutrin* [1672-1683]. Was elected a member of the *Académie Française* [1684].

BOSSUET (Jacques-Bénigne) [1627-1704].—Bishop of Condom [1669]; Tutor to the Dauphin [1670]; Bishop of Meaux [1681]. Complete works, sixty-two volumes octavo, Paris, 1828-1830. "Le dernier père de l'Église" (La Bruyère).

BOURBON.—The first King of France of the Bourbon family was Henry IV. [1553-1610]; the last was Louis Philippe I. [1773-1850].

CÆSAR (Caius Julius) [B.C. 101—B.C. 44].

CHARLES V.—Emperor of Germany [1500-1558]. "Impitoyable et sans générosité" (Bouillet).

CICERO (Marcus Tullius) [B.C. 107—B.C. 43].

CLAUDIANUS (Claudius) [365-408 ?].—A Latin poet of very inferior merit.

CONDÉ (House of).—Its chief was Louis I. [1530-1569], whose great grandson, Louis II. [1621-1687], was so celebrated under the designation of *Le Grand Condé*.

CORNEILLE (Pierre) [1606-1684].—The father of French tragedy. *Le Cid* [1636]; *Horace*, *Cinna* [1639]; *Polyeucte* [1640].

CORNEILLE (Thomas) [1625-1709] —A dramatic writer of some talent, but inferior to his brother.

ESTIENNE (Family of) has produced several excellent printers and scholars. The principal were Robert [1503-1559]; Henri II. [1532-1598], author of the *Thesaurus;* and Charles [1504-1564].

FRANÇOIS I. [1494-1547].—Ascended the throne of France in 1515.]

GRACCHI (The).—TIBERIUS GRACCHUS [B.C. 162—B.C. 135]; CAIUS GRACCHUS [B.C. 152—121].

GREGORIUS TURINENSIS (Georgius Florentius) [539-593].—Bishop of Tours, 573. His *Historia ecclesiastica Francorum*, which extends from 417-591, is invaluable.

GRUTER (John; in Latin, *Janus Gruterus*) [1560-1627].—Celebrated as a scholar and archæologist. His *Corpus Inscriptionum* was published for the first time in 1608.

GUISE (Family of) has played an important part in the history of France. The head of the family was CLAUDE DE LORRAINE, Duke de Guise [1496-1550]; the most distinguished member of it was FRANÇOIS DE LORRAINE, surnamed *Le Balafré* [1519-1563].

HARCOURT (Henri, Duke d') [1654-1718].—Accompanied the Duke d'Anjou in Spain as ambassador [1700].

HUGH CAPET [? 941-996].—King of France in 987.

JEANNE D'ARC [1409-1431].

KARL THE BALD [823-877].—King of France in 840.

LA BRUYÈRE (Jean de) [1646-1696].—One of the best French writers of the seventeenth century. *Les caractères ou les mœurs de ce siècle* [1688].

LA FONTAINE (Jean de) [1621-1695].—His fables are well known.

LAMARTINE (Marie Louis Alphonse Prat de) [1790-1869].—Celebrated as a writer and a politician. *Méditations poétiques* [1825]; *Jocelyn* [1835]; *Histoire des Girondins* [1847].

LANCELOT (Claude) [1615-1695].—A distinguished Port-Royalist grammarian and scholar.

LOUIS IX. (*Saint-Louis*) [1215-1270].—King of France in 1226.

LOUIS XIII. [1601-1643].—King of France in 1610.

LOUIS XIV. [1638-1715].—King of France in 1643.

LUCRETIUS CARUS (Titus) [B.C. 95-52 ?].—One of the greatest of Latin poets.

LUDWIG THE GERMAN [806-876].—Grandson of Charlemagne.

MALHERBE (François de) [1555-1628].—A celebrated French poet.

MARTIALIS (Marcus Valerius) [43-103].—The well-known Latin epigrammatist.

MASSILLON (Jean Baptiste) [1663-1742].—One of the best French pulpit orators. Bishop of Clermont in 1717.

MEROVINGIAN Dynasty.—Extends from 481 (Clovis) to 752 (Childeric III.).

MOLIÈRE (Jean Baptiste Poquelin) [1662-1673].—The greatest French comic writer. *Le Misanthrope* [1666]; *Le Tartufe* [1667].

MONTESQUIEU (Charles de Secondat, Baron de la Brède et de) [1689-1755].—A distinguished historian and political writer. *Lettres Persanes* [1727]; *L'esprit des lois* [1748].

MURATORI (Luigi Antonio) [1672-1750].—An Italian critic and historian of great reputation.

PALSGRAVE (John) [? 1480-? 1554].—An English grammarian.

PAPIAS [eleventh century].—A Latin scholar, whose *Vocabularium Latinum*, composed about 1053, is extremely valuable.

PERRAULT (Charles) [1628-1703].—His fairy tales (*Histoires du temps passé*, 1697) are still much admired.

PETRONIUS ARBITER [? -67].—Author of the *Satyricon*, and one of Nero's favourites.

PHÆDRUS (Julius) [B.C. ? 30—? A.D. 44].—A Latin fabulist of considerable merit.

PLAUTUS (Maccius) [B.C. ? 227—? 183].—His plays are full of life and of true comic spirit.

POUSSIN (Nicolas) [1594-1665].—The leader of the Old French school of painting.

PRISCIANUS [fifth century].—A Latin scholar; has left a work entitled *Commentariorum Grammaticorum, lib. xvii.*

QUINTILIANUS (Marcus Fabius) [42-120].—The well-known author of the *De Institutione Oratoria*.

RABELAIS (François [1483-1553].—A French satirical writer. His *Gargantua* is a singular mixture of shrewdness and coarse wit.

RACINE (Jean) [1639-1699].—The greatest French tragic author. *Andromaque* [1667]; *Britannicus* [1669]; *Phèdre* [1677]; *Athalie* [1691].

RAMUS (Pierre) [1515-1572].—His real name was *La Ramée*; celebrated as a philosopher and critic.

RAPHAEL SANZIO [1483-1520].—Has been surnamed the Homer of Painting.

ROLAND, the nephew of Charlemagne.—The metrical poem called the *Chanson de Roland* was composed during the eleventh century.

ROUSSEAU (Jean Baptiste) [1671-1741].—Celebrated as a lyric poet.

SILIUS ITALICUS (Publius) [25-75].—Wrote an epic poem on the second Punic war.

SIXTUS V. (Felix Peretti) [1521-1590].—Elected Pope in 1585.

SOPHOCLES [B.C. 495-406].—His tragedies are the most perfect monuments of Greek dramatic literature.

TURENNE (Henri de La Tour d'Auvergne, Viscount) [1611-1675].—Marshal of France in 1660.

VAUGELAS (Claude Favre) [1585-1650].—A well-known grammarian and scholar.

VIRGILIUS MARO (Publius) [B.C. 70—B.C. 19].—The national poet of ancient Italy.

VOLTAIRE (François Marie Arouet de) [1694-1778].—"L'écrivain le plus universel des temps modernes" (Bouillet).

INDEX.

	PAGE
ACCENTS, 15—18. - Borrowed from the Greek by the French grammarians of the sixteenth century	30, 31
Accented or tonic syllables	30, 31
Ai: origin of this syllable in verbs	139
Ainsi, explained	226
Alphabet (French): its order accounted for	11
Aller: history of the formation of the verb	178
Als, original form of the plural in *aux*	49
Arroger (*s'*), non-agreement of its past participle	170
Article, definite: really a demonstrative adjective	78
———, indefinite: its origin	81
Assez, explained	217
Aucun, derivation of	110
Autrui, derivation of	111
Auxiliary verbs: traces of them in Latin	146
Avoir: history and origin of the various tenses	152, 153
BEAUCOUP, explained	218
Boucher: its derivation	61
C (hard): its derivation	23
Cantatrice, meaning of	41
Car, explained	225
Ch (hard): its derivation	22
Chasseresse, used in poetry	41
Chez, explained	222
Conjunctive propositions used instead of infinitive ones	291
DAME! interjection, explained	227
Declensions: how the cases were reduced from six to two	47
Dentals: derived from the Latin	24
Désormais, derivation of	225
Dialects	4, 5
Dont, d'où, used indifferently at first	124
E (mute), its origin	17
ent, mute in the third person plural of French verbs	198
Être: history and origin of the various tenses	149, 150
FEMININE, *nouns*, all comé from the corresponding masculine	45
Fleurissant, florissant	179
Future, in French: origin of its formation	140
G (soft), unknown to the Romans	22
Genitive, formed by apposition	235, 236
Gent, gender of	45
Goutte (n'y voir)	220

	PAGE
Grammar: the French grammar originally a continuation of the Latin one	38
Grand, feminine of	89
H, aspiration of, lost in French	28
H, Latin, stongly aspirated	28
Hélas ! etymology of	227
Homme, on	126, 127
Huis, derivation of	61
IDIOMS	1
JE QUI LIS, etc., explained	117
LANGUE D'OC	4
Langue d'oïl	4
Latin (popular and classical, or literary)	3
Loyalment	216
MAIS, explained	225
Malgré, etymology of	222
Mamie, mameur, explained	110
Même, etymology of, 113; remarks on	250
ment, origin of the adverbial termination	215
Mes, origin of the prefix	210
Mie, etymology of	219
Mortel, feminine of	89
Moutarde, explained	61
NASAL VOWELS, unknown to the Romans, and originally to the French	20
Néanmoins, origin of	226
Neuter: how it disappeared	39
Neuter: how Latin neuter substantives are represented in French	39, 40
Noun substantive and noun adjective, the correct description	38
Numerals: the Celtic nations numbered by twenty	102
O and *eu*, intermediate forms between	18
Orthography (French): how to make it perfect	11
Ou explained,	225
Oui, etymology of	219
PAS, real meaning of the adverb	219
Past participle, origin of	144
Patois	2
Personne: a substantive	220
Plus tôt and *plutôt* originally identical	279
Point: its real meaning	219
Possession, how the Latins expressed the relation of	235, 236
Present participles, variable till the end of the sixteenth century	268
Pronouns: the demonstrative pronouns still used instead of the definite article in several French patois	79
———: origin of the demonstrative pronoun *cet*	111
QUELQUE, formerly variable in French	249, 250
Quinze-vingts: meaning of	102
RE: origin of the prefix	210

PAGE

Rien, a substantive 220
Romance language 3
Rustic Latin 4

S final in the first person singular of verbs, contrary to ymology .. 137
s, mark of the plural: why 47
si, etymology of 225

T, the so-called euphonic 137
Tout never used adverbially in Old French 249

UNACCENTED or atonic syllables 30, 31

VERBS: the original verb has disappeared in some instances in modern French 99
——: the quality of defective not a real element of classification .. 175
Voici, voilà, etymology of 222
Vowels: their quantity 13, 14

X, plural in, accounted for 48

Y: its origin 19

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PAGE

Author's Preface vii

INTRODUCTION.

Preliminary Remarks on the History and Geography of the French Language 1
Object and Definition of Grammar 8

BOOK I.—STUDY OF LETTERS.

CHAPTER I.—OF THE FRENCH ALPHABET 11
CHAPTER II.—SIMPLE VOWELS 13
CHAPTER III.—COMPOUND VOWELS OR DIPHTHONGS 19
CHAPTER IV.—NASAL VOWELS 20
CHAPTER V.—CONSONANTS .. .. 21.
1. Gutturals 22
2. Dentals 24
3. Labials 25
4. Liquids and nasals 26
5. Summary 27
CHAPTER VI.—SYLLABLES. TONIC ACCENT 29
CHAPTER VII.—ORTHOGRAPHIC SIGNS 32

BOOK II.—STUDY OF WORDS.

Definitions. Parts of Speech 37

CHAPTER I.—OF THE NOUN OR SUBSTANTIVE .. 38

Definitions 38
SECTION I.—OF GENDER IN NOUNS 39
SECTION II.—OF NUMBER IN NOUNS 47
SECTION III.—FORMATION OF SUBSTANTIVES 56
1. From Substantives 57
I. *With prefixes* 57
II. *With suffixes* 58
2. From Adjectives 68
3. From Verbs.. 69
I. *From the tenses of the verb* 70
II. *With suffixes* 72

CHAPTER II.—OF THE ARTICLE.

Definitions 78
SECTION I.—DEFINITE ARTICLE 78
SECTION II.—INDEFINITE ARTICLE 81

CHAPTER III.—OF THE ADJECTIVE.

PAGE
Definitions 81
SECTION I.—FORMATION OF THE FEMININE OF QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES .. 82
Rule 82
Exceptions 83
SECTION II.—FORMATION OF THE PLURAL OF ADJECTIVES 89
Rule 89
Exceptions 90
SECTION III.—OF THE DEGREES OF SIGNIFICATION IN ADJECTIVES .. 91
SECTION IV.—FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES 93
1. Composition.. 93
2. Derivation 99
A. *From substantives* 95
B. *From other adjectives* 97
C. *From verbs* 98
SECTION V.—DETERMINATIVE ADJECTIVES 100
SECTION VI.—NUMERAL ADJECTIVES 100
A. Cardinal Numeral Adjectives 101
B. Ordinal Numeral Adjectives 103
SECTION VII.—POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES 109
SECTION VIII.—DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES 110
SECTION IX.—INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES 111

CHAPTER IV.—OF THE PRONOUN.

Definitions 114
SECTION I.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS 115
SECTION II.—POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS 119
SECTION III.—DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS 121
SECTION IV.—RELATIVE PRONOUNS 122
SECTION V.—INDEFINITE PRONOUNS 126

CHAPTER V.—OF THE VERB.

SECTION I.—DEFINITIONS 128
1. Subject. Verb. Complement 128
2. Of the Five Different Kinds of Verbs 129
3. Stem. Termination 130
4. Number 131
5. Persons 131
6. Moods 131
7. Tenses 133
8. Conjugations 133
SECTION II.—FORMATION OF SIMPLE TENSES 136
I. Present of the Indicative 136
II. Imperfect 138
III. Preterite 139
IV. Future Simple 140
V. Conditional Simple 141
VI. Imperative 142
VII. Subjunctive Present 143
VIII. Subjunctive Imperfect 143
IX. Infinitive and Participles 144
SECTION III.—FORMATION OF THE COMPOUND TENSES 145

PAGE

I. Conjugation of the Auxiliary Verb **Être**, *to be* 147
II. Conjugation of the Auxiliary Verb **Avoir**, *to have* 150
SECTION IV.—ACTIVE VERBS 153
I. First Conjugation.—Verb **aimer**, *to love* 154
II. Second Conjugation.—Verb **finir**, *to finish* 156
III. Third Conjugation.—Verb **recevoir**, *to receive* 158
IV. Fourth Conjugation.—Verb **rompre**, *to break* 161
SECTION V.—PASSIVE VERBS 164
SECTION VI.—NEUTER VERBS 167
SECTION VII.—REFLEXIVE VERBS 170
SECTION VIII.—IMPERSONAL VERBS 173
SECTION IX.—IRREGULAR VERBS.. 175
1. First Conjugation, *er* 176
2. Second Conjugation, *ir* 178
1. Congugation with *iss* 179
2. Direct Conjugation in *ir* 180
3. Third Conjugation, *oir* 189
4. Fourth Conjugation, *re* 195
SECTION X.—FORMATION OF THE VERBS 209
I. Composition of the Verbs 209
II. Derivation of the Verbs 210

CHAPTER VII.—OF THE PARTICIPLE. 211

CHAPTER VIII.—OF THE ADVERB. 212

SECTION I.—ON THE MEANING OF ADVERBS 212
I. Adverbs of Place 213
II. Adverbs of Time 214
III. Adverbs of Manner 214
IV. Adverbs of Quantity 217
V. Adverbs of Interrogation 216
VI. Adverbs of Affirmation 218
VII. Adverbs of Negation.. 219
VIII. Adverbs of Doubt 220

CHAPTER IX.—OF THE PREPOSITION.

I. FORMATION OF SIMPLE PREPOSITIONS 221
II. FORMATION OF PREPOSITIVE LOCUTIONS 224

CHAPTER X.—OF THE CONJUNCTION.

I. SIMPLE CONJUNCTIONS 225
II. CONJUNCTIVE LOCUTIONS 226

CHAPTER XI.—OF THE INTERJECTION 227

BOOK III.—SYNTAX.

DEFINITIONS 231

FIRST PART.—SYNTAX OF WORDS.

DEFINITIONS 233

CHAPTER I.—SYNTAX OF THE SUBSTANTIVE.

PAGE

I. Agreement of the Substantive 234
II. Complement of the Substantive 235

CHAPTER II.—SYNTAX OF THE ARTICLE.

Agreement of the Definite Article 238

CHAPTER III.—SYNTAX OF THE ADJECTIVE.

I. Agreement of the Adjective 239
II. Of the Position of Adjectives 241
III. Complement of the Adjective 244

CHAPTER IV.—SYNTAX OF NUMERAL, POSSESSIVE, AND INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES.

I. Numeral Adjectives 245
A. Cardinal Adjectives.. 245
B. Ordinal Adjectives 246
II. Possessive Adjectives 246
III. Indefinite Adjectives 248

CHAPTER V.—SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUNS.

I. Personal Pronouns 251
II. Possessive Pronouns 256
III. Demonstrative Pronouns.. 257
IV. Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.. 258
V. Indefinite Pronouns 260

CHAPTER VI.—SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

I. Agreement of the Verb with One Single Subject 261
II. Agreement of the Verb with Several Subjects 264
III. Complement of the Verb 266

CHAPTER VII.—SYNTAX OF THE PARTICIPLES.

I. Agreement of the Present Participle 268
II. Agreement of the Past Participle 269
1. General Principles 269
2. The Past Participle used with the Auxiliary *être* (to be) .. 271
3. The Past Participle used with the Auxiliary *avoir* (to have) .. 271
4. Additional Remarks on the Agreement of the Participles .. 274
5. Summary.. 276

CHAPTER VIII.—SYNTAX OF ADVERBS 277

CHAPTER IX.—SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS 280

CHAPTER X.—SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS 282

SECOND PART.

SYNTAX OF PROPOSITIONS.

I. Definitions 285
II. Of the Subordinate Proposition 287

PAGE

CHAPTER I.—PARTICIPIAL PROPOSITIONS 289

CHAPTER II.—INFINITIVE PROPOSITIONS 290

CHAPTER III.—CONJUNCTIVE PROPOSITIONS 290

I. The Use of the Indicative and of the Subjunctive 291
II. Use of the Tenses of the Subjunctive 294

CHAPTER IV.—RELATIVE PROPOSITIONS 297

APPENDIX.

OF ANALYSIS 301

Biographical List 306

Index 309

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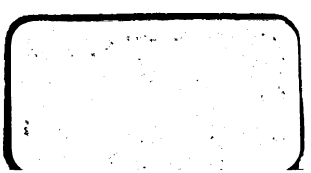
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